King John signing Magna Charta.

OUTLINES

OF THE

HISTORY OF ENGLAND;

FOR

FAMILIES AND SCHOOLS.

With Numerous Engravings.

PUBLISHED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF
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ADVERTISEMENT.

The study of History, from its very commencement, ought to exercise the judgment as well as the memory. When young persons enter upon it, they should not be fatigued with a load of names, dates, and events, presented without detail or explanation. Neither, on the other hand, ought they to be puzzled with political dis quisitions which they cannot comprehend. The narrative should be confined to those occurrences which are most memorable and important; and they should be connected by a chain of causes and consequences, which may both assist the memory and satisfy the judgment of the reader.

With this view the following little work has been prepared. The leading events of the History of England are related, it is hoped with simplicity, and their connexion traced with clearness. Some minuteness of detail is occasionally employed in the relation of striking incidents; those circumstances are particularly marked which have led to the gradual formation of the British system of government; and it is trusted that this work will thus afford such a general view of English History as will make the study of the greater works on the subject easy and agreeable.

CONTENTS.

Ancient Britons.

CHAPTER I.

Invasion of Britain by Julius Cæsar.—Britain under the Romans.

From 55 before Christ to A. D. 430.

The Island of Britain was known to the Romans by the name of *Britannia*, for a long time before it was invaded by them, under their celebrated general, Julius Cæsar; but little or nothing was known of its inhabitants. After that conqueror had overrun the neighbouring country of Gaul (now called France), he determined to carry his arms into Britain; where he landed, with a considerable army, in the year 55 before the Christian era.

At that time the inhabitants of Britain were in a very barbarous condition. They were divided into a number of petty independent States; and the manners and language of the inhabitants of the southern parts were similar to those of the Gauls; hence it was inferred that they were sprung from that people. They were as warlike as the Gauls, but less civilized; their religious superstitions in particular, were among the most bloody which have been known in any part of the world. The Druids, or priests, were venerated for the strictness of their lives, and dreaded for the cruelty of their rites and sacrifices.

Cæsar, on his landing, met with a determined resistance. He gained such advantages over the natives, however, as induced them to make a show of submission. But no sooner had he left the island, on the approach of winter, than they broke through their engagements. On his return, next spring he found a formidable force arrayed for his reception, under Cassibelaunus, king of the Trinobantes (the inhabitants of what are now the counties of Essex and Middlesex); but the Romans soon routed the undisciplined Britons; and Cæsar having established a chief, who had become his ally, in the sovereignty of the Trinobantes, finally left Britain, having achieved little more than a nominal conquest of a very small part of the Island.

Britain remained unmolested by the Romans for nearly a century; when it was again invaded by the armies of the emperor Claudius. The Britons, under Caractacus, maintained for several years a brave defence, till the British king was defeated in a great battle, and sent prisoner to Rome. While led in triumph through the city, he calmly surveyed the surrounding splendour, and exclaimed, "Alas! how is it possible that a nation possessed of such magnificence should covet my poor cottage in Britain!" On being brought before the emperor, the haughty tyrant was subdued by his noble bearing, and treated him with a respect seldom shown to prisoners. The defeat of Caractacus took place in the year 51.

Still only a small part of the island was subdued; but in the reign of the emperor Nero, the Roman general Suetonius was sent into Britain. The Britons were assembled to receive him, in great force, under the celebrated queen Boadicea, who had been infamously treated by the Roman governor of the conquered province. This had excited a general rising of the Britons; and London, then a flourishing Roman settlement, had been taken, and the inhabitants put to the sword, before Suetonius could come to their relief. But he immediately attacked the Britons, and defeated them in a decisive battle, in which 80,000 of them were slain; and Boadicea put an end to her life by poison.

It was not, however, till the great general Agricola was sent into Britain by the emperor Vespasian, that the Roman dominion was established in the country. Agricola penetrated into Caledonia, the northern division of the island; and having driven the natives, who still resisted, into the mountains and fastnesses of the country, now called the Highlands of Scotland, he established a line of garrisons between the firths of Forth and Clyde,* for the protection of the conquered country. For further protection against the unsubdued barbarians, walls were afterwards built in different directions, remains of which are still visible.

The Roman government being thus established in Britain, except in the mountains of Scotland and Wales, it was maintained in tranquillity till the decay of the empire itself rendered it no longer possible to maintain a Roman force in the island. The Roman troops were gradually diminished; till at last, in the reign of the emperor Valentinian the younger, they were wholly withdrawn. It was about the year 430 that Britain was thus finally abandoned by the Romans.

* These are two large arms of the sea, on the eastern and western coasts of Scotland, nearly opposite, which approach to within a short distance of each other.

CHAPTER II.

Invasions of the Saxons.—The Saxon Heptarchy.

From 430 to 827.

During the preceding four hundred years, the Britons, though they had, under the Romans, made considerable progress in civilization, had lost much of their original warlike spirit. The barbarians of the north, finding them abandoned by the Romans, attacked them with fury, and breaking through the ramparts established for their protection, committed dreadful ravages among them. Their only resource was to supplicate the assistance of Rome; and, failing to obtain it, they resolved to apply to the Saxons.

The Saxons, a people of Germany, had been hitherto known to the Britons only from their fierce descents on the coast for the sake of plunder, but this did not prevent the British prince, Vortigern, from now imploring their protection. Accordingly, a considerable body of them arrived under the brothers Hengist and Horsa; and joining the British forces, attacked the Scots and Picts, who had advanced into the heart of England, and completely routed them. The Saxons, however, speedily resolved to gain possession of a country so much richer than their own; and, seizing a pretext for quarrelling with Vortigern, they brought over great reinforcements.

A sanguinary struggle took place, in which the Saxons were several times defeated, with the loss of one of their leaders, Horsa; and it was only by treachery, as it is said, that Hengist could at last gain the ascendancy. Pretending to wish to conclude a treaty with Vortigern, he invited him and his nobility to a banquet, during which Vortigern was seized, and three hundred British nobles massacred. The truth of this story, however, is

doubted. Hengist acquired the possession of the kingdom of Kent, and made Canterbury the seat of his government, where he died about the year 488, after a reign of forty years.

Allured by the success of Hengist and his followers, other German tribes came over at different times, in great numbers. They all passed under the general denomination of Saxons; and, uniting against the Britons, drove them into the recesses of Wales and Cornwall. This contest lasted nearly 150 years; and its result was the establishment of seven separate Saxon kingdoms, known by the name of the *Heptarchy.**

The kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy were: 1. Kent, comprehending the modern counties of Kent, Middlesex, and Essex; 2. Kingdom of the South Saxons, comprehending Sussex, Surrey, and the New Forest; 3. Wessex, including Hants, Dorset, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight; 4. The East Angles, comprehending Cambridge, Suffolk, and Norfolk; 5. Essex, which was dismembered from the kingdom of Kent, and including part of Hertfordshire; 6. Mercia, comprehending the Midland counties, from the Severn, to the boundaries of the two last-named kingdoms; and, 7. Northumberland, the most extensive of all, and comprehending the whole of the northern counties.

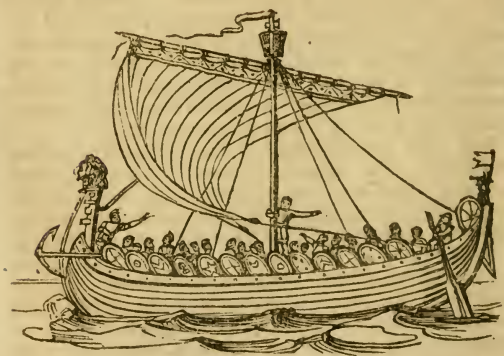
Such were the kingdoms of the Heptarchy, as first established. The history of England, for nearly four centuries, consists of the quarrels of the petty sovereigns; till Egbert, king of Wessex, after subduing all the others, made himself, in 827, sole master of England.

During the time of the Heptarchy, the language and manners of the ancient British, and of the Romans, disappeared. The Saxon language only was spoken; and the habits of the people, titles of honour, laws, and institutions, were those of the Germans, from whom they were derived, with such alterations as were naturally produced by increasing civilization.

It was in the course of this period, that is, towards

* From two Greek words, signifying *seven governments.*

the close of the sixth century, that the Roman Pontiff, Gregory, surnamed the Great, sent Augustine, with forty companions, to spread the Christian faith in England. The knowledge of the Gospel had, indeed, been introduced into Britain during the struggle with the Romans at a very early date; and there was a considerable portion of the population to whom the name of the Redeemer was not unknown, when Augustine landed in Kent, and preached the Gospel with great success. Of all the gifts of God to a nation, the knowledge of salvation by Jesus Christ is the greatest, and deserves to be ever remembered with peculiar thankfulness.



A ship of King Alfred's time.

CHAPTER III.

Danish Invasions.—Saxon Kings to the Time of Alfred.—His Reign.

From 827 to 900.

The tranquillity which England enjoyed on the accession of Egbert was soon interrupted by the aggressions of the Danes. That people had made several descents on the English coasts during the Heptarchy; but it was not till some time after the elevation of Egbert to the sovereignty of England that their invasions became formidable. Egbert, during the remainder of his reign, and his successors, Ethelwolf, Ethelbald, Ethelbert, and Ethelred, were engaged in unceasing struggles with these fierce invaders, and at the time when the great Alfred succeeded his brother Ethelred, in the year 871, the kingdom was reduced to the brink of ruin.

Alfred was no sooner seated on the throne than he made head against the Danes, who were then ravaging the very heart of the kingdom. He repeatedly defeated them in bloody battles, and compelled them to sue for peace. But new swarms arrived daily, and the forces of Alfred were exhausted by continual encounters with fresh enemies. At last, he was obliged to assume the disguise of a peasant, and lived for some time in concealment in the house of a herdsman, whose cattle he tended.

While in this retreat, he was one day ordered by the woman of the house to watch some cakes which were baking on the fire; and allowing them, in his absence of mind, to burn, he was severely reprimanded by her for his negligence. His quality, however, was soon discovered, to the amazement and consternation of his simple hosts, by the appearance of a band of his most devoted adherents, who came to desire him to lead them once more against the foe. He did so, and after a

series of heroic exploits, at last totally routed the Danish forces, under their king, Guthrum, who was taken prisoner.

Before the battle, Alfred himself entered the Danish camp in the disguise of a minstrel, and acquired that knowledge of their situation which enabled him to attack them in the most unguarded quarter. Alfred made a mild use of his victory. Having persuaded the Danish king, and the greatest part of his army, to embrace Christianity, he allotted them lands on which to settle, and placed them on the same footing with his English subjects.

After this great defeat, which happened in 879, the Danes made several plundering inroads into England, but, through the energy of Alfred, the invaders were immediately destroyed, without being allowed materially to disturb the tranquillity of the kingdom.

Alfred, having thus secured the peace of his kingdom, devoted himself to its improvement. He framed a body of laws which is still considered the origin of the common laws of England. His police was so strict, that when, as it is said, golden bracelets were hung by way of trial on the way-side, no man touched them. His government was as mild as it was strict; and his regard for the liberty of the subject is shown by the noble sentiment contained in his will, that the English ought to remain for ever as free as their own thoughts.

Having raised his country to a high pitch of prosperity, he died in the year 900, after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years, leaving the imperishable reputation of being one of the best and wisest monarchs who ever sat upon a throne.

CHAPTER IV.

Saxon and Danish Kings to the Norman Conquest.

From 900 to 1066.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward, the first of that name. He possessed his father's military talents; for which he had employment in the insurrections and convulsions which disturbed his kingdom. He died in 925, and was succeeded by his natural son, Athelstan, the earlier part of whose reign was disturbed by the Danes, as that of his father had been: but the remainder of it was spent in tranquillity. He was an able prince; and one of his laws for the encouragement of commerce, in particular, is remarkable for great liberality and strength of mind, considering the period when it was made. It was, that a merchant who had made three voyages on his own account, should be entitled to the rank of a thane, or a nobleman. He died in 941.

He was succeeded by his brother Edmund, who was slain in his own hall by a robber. His successor was his brother Edred, in whose reign the marriage of the clergy was first forbidden by the celebrated Dunstan, an English monk, who, by his severity of life and pretended miracles, gained unbounded influence in the kingdom. On his death, in 955, he was succeeded by his nephew Edwy.

The reign of Edwy is remarkable for the dismal story of his queen Elgiva. This princess was his second or third cousin, and within the degree forbidden by the law of the Romish Church. His marriage, accordingly, was contrary to the advice of Dunstan and the great churchmen, whose power, in that age, was unbounded. Such was their ascendancy over the nation, that they dared to order her to be dragged from her husband by armed men, who branded her face with a red-hot iron,

after which she was carried into Ireland; and the king was constrained to consent to a sentence of divorce. Her wounds being cured, and the scars on her face having disappeared, she attempted to return to the king; but, being waylaid by a party sent for that purpose, she was most cruelly murdered at Gloucester. At the same time, a rebellion stirred up by Dunstan, broke out against Edwy; and his younger brother, Edgar, a mere boy, was set up in opposition to him. He died before he was totally deprived of his kingdom, and Edgar assumed the government.

Edgar, who mounted the throne in 959, had a prosperous reign. He yielded to the influence of the monks; but, in his general conduct of affairs, showed capacity and vigour. His reign is remarkable for the great number of foreigners whom he encouraged to settle in England; and for the total destruction of the wolves. In his character he was licentious and unprincipled; and committed some shocking actions for the gratification of his criminal inclinations. One of these was the murder of a nobleman, for the purpose of marrying his wife Elfrida. He died in 975.

Edgar left two sons: Edward by his first wife, and Ethelred by Elfrida. The accession of Edward was violently, but unsuccessfully, opposed by his step-mother Elfrida. But she had him treacherously murdered in the fourth year of his reign; when her son Ethelred was raised to the throne. The feeble character of this prince, who was surnamed the *Unready*, induced the Danes to renew their inroads; against which, his only means of defence was the purchase of forbearance by large sums of money; an expedient which naturally produced an effect opposite to that which he intended. The Danes took the money offered them, and soon found pretexts for renewing their devastations.

At that period, a great number of Danes were settled in the kingdom, and were very odious to the English, from their haughty and oppressive conduct. Availing himself of this disposition on the part of his subjects, Ethelred formed and accomplished the design of mur-

dering the Danes throughout the kingdom. This horrid deed was completed in one day, in the month of November, 1002. Its consequence was, that the Danes renewed their attacks with more fury than ever. Ethelred was even obliged to take refuge in Normandy, while Sweyn, the king of Denmark, was crowned king of England; but Sweyn dying soon after, Ethelred was recalled, and continued in a posture of defence against the Danes until his death, which took place in the year 1015.

Edmund, surnamed *Ironside*, continued to oppose the Danes with great bravery, till a treaty was concluded with Canute, the Danish monarch, by which the kingdom was divided between them. Soon after the treaty, Edmund was murdered by some of his officers, and the whole of England submitted to Canute.

Canute, who ascended the throne of England in 1016, was an able and powerful prince. In the distribution of justice, he made no distinction between the English and Danes, and preserved the Saxon laws and customs. In his reign, the two races began to be blended with each other. In the latter part of his life he was pious and contemplative.

There is a story told of a rebuke given by Canute to his courtiers, which is believed to be true. Being king of England, Denmark, and Norway, his power was the subject of gross flattery; and his attendants affected to treat him as if his power were boundless. Canute seated himself in a chair, on the sea-shore, while the tide was advancing, and loudly commanded the sea to retire, and to obey the voice of him who was its lord. He pretended to sit still in expectation of his command being obeyed, till the sea began to wash him with its waves. Then, turning to his courtiers, he desired them to observe, that power truly resided but with one Being, who alone could say to the ocean, "Thus far shalt thou go and no farther." Canute died in the nineteenth year of his reign; leaving three sons, Sweyn, who became king of Norway, Hardicanute, who succeeded to the crown of Denmark, and Harold, to that of England.

The reign of Harold (surnamed *Harefoot*) was re-

markable only for an act of wickedness. Ethelred the *Unready* had married as his second wife, Emma, daughter of the duke of Normandy, by whom he had two sons, Edward and Alfred. On his death, his widow and her sons removed into Normandy. Emma afterwards married Canute, by whom she had Hardicanute, now king of Denmark; his sons Sweyn and Harold being of a different marriage. After the death of Canute, the two English princes arrived in England, to pay their mother a visit. Alfred was invited to London by Harold; but was waylaid and murdered on the road. His mother and brother immediately fled to Normandy. Harold died after a reign of four years, and was succeeded by his brother Hardicanute; a man remarkable only for his strength and intemperance. He reigned only two years, and was succeeded by Edward, the surviving son of Ethelred and Emma.

The accession of Edward, surnamed the *Confessor*, was in 1041. He was engaged, during the greatest part of his reign, in contests with Earl Godwin, whose power had been increasing during the two preceding reigns, and was now sufficient to make him a rival of his sovereign. Edward had married Editha, Earl Godwin's daughter, by whom he had no children. On the death of that nobleman, his son Harold aspired so openly to the succession of the crown, and made himself so generally popular, that on the death of Edward, which took place in 1066, in the twenty-fifth year of his reign, he was able to take possession of the crown, without opposition, though there was a nearer heir, in the person of Edgar Atheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside.

Harold covered the defect of his title by governing in a manner calculated to make him popular. He caused the laws to be revised and improved, and to be impartially executed; and he repelled with great vigour a formidable invasion of the Norwegians. But he had no sooner freed himself from this enemy, than he received news that William, duke of Normandy, had landed in England with an army, and laid claim to the crown.

The Normans were descended from the followers of Rollo, a petty prince of Denmark, who, in the beginning of the tenth century, had invaded France, and compelled the king, Charles the *Simple*, to put them in possession of a province on the coast, which acquired the name of Normandy, and its inhabitants that of Normans, or Northmen. Rollo was the first duke of Normandy, and from him William was descended.

It was on the 29th of Semptember, 1066, that William landed at Hastings, with an army of 60,000 men. He was immediately met by Harold, at the head of a powerful force, devoted to his cause, and flushed with their victory over the Norwegians. The armies engaged at day-break, on the 14th of October. The advantage was at first with the English, who made a terrible slaughter; but William, by pretending to give ground, threw them into disorder, and then suddenly turned upon them with more fury than before. The fate of the battle still remained in suspense, when Harold, while heading a charge against the Norman heavy armed infantry, was slain by an arrow which pierced his brain; and his two brothers fell by his side. The English troops now gave way on all sides, and were pursued by the Normans with great slaughter. Near 15,000 Normans fell, and the loss of the English was still more considerable.

Thus ended the Saxon government in England, after it had subsisted for six hundred years. The constitution of the kingdom, and the nature of its laws, during that period, are not distinctly understood; but the following particulars may be noticed.

The principle of inheritance, so natural to mankind, was acknowledged in the succession to the crown, as well as to private property; but the pretentions of the next heir to the throne, when, through want of sufficient age, or other causes, he was not in a condition to support them, were so often disregarded, that the crown cannot strictly be said to have been *hereditary*.

During the whole of the Saxon period, the laws and chief acts of government were passed and confirmed by a great assembly, called the *Wittenagemot*, the nature

of which is very imperfectly known. It is agreed that the greater churchmen formed an essential part of it; and also the *Aldermen*, or governors of counties, who had received the Danish titles of *Earls*. Besides these, the assembly was composed of *Wites*, or wise men, by whom some writers understand the judges, or men learned in the law; and others, the representatives of the towns, or what are now called the Commons.

Without entering into a discussion too extensive for this work, we may observe that there appears no positive evidence of so great a refinement as a *representative* government in that rude age; and that, considering the smallness and poverty of the towns, (which were mere villages), it is very improbable that they would have any voice in the government. There is reason to believe that the more considerable proprietors of land had seats in this assembly, in right of their possessions.

The constitution of the courts of justice was well calculated to protect the rights of the people. Every county was divided into hundreds and tithings; and a general county-court, consisting of the whole freeholders, under the presidency of the bishop and earl, assembled once a year, to receive appeals from the lesser courts, and to decide all sorts of causes. The excessive power, however, of the great nobility, who, attended by bands of armed followers, were able to commit every sort of violence, and even to defy the royal authority, lessened the good effects of these regulations. These powerful plunderers were above the reach of the laws; the people found it necessary to protect themselves by personal resistance; and hence scenes of disorder and strife were common throughout the country. The power of the nobility was increased by the number of slaves, or *villains*, (then the most numerous body of the people,) who were at their absolute disposal: and by whose means they were enabled to deprive the lower classes of freemen of everything beyond the mere name of freedom.

The criminal laws of the Saxons were derived from their German forefathers. The punishment of death had no place among them; but every crime, even mur-

der, was punished by compensation to the party injured, and a fine to the king. By a law of Alfred, wilful murder was made a capital crime; but it does not appear that this law was generally acted upon. The modes of trial were full of the superstition of the age. If the evidence were perplexing, recourse was had to single combat between the accuser and the accused; or to the ordeal, by which the accused was made to plunge his hand into boiling water, or carry red-hot iron.

At the time of the Conquest, the Saxons, Danes, and remnants of the ancient inhabitants, were so blended as to have become one people. For several generations afterwards, this people, who went under the general name of the Anglo-Saxons, remained distinct from the Normans, and a strong enmity subsisted between them; but as they became more intermixed, this feeling died away; and all former distinctions were lost in the general name and character of *the English.*

CHAPTER V.

William the Conqueror.

From 1066 to 1087.

The defeat and death of Harold filled the English with consternation. The whole nation, including even Edgar Atheling, the rightful heir to the throne, submitted to William, who was crowned king of England at Westminster, on the 26th of December, 1066.

In the beginning of his reign, he sought the favour of his English subjects; but, by the symptoms of distrust which he betrayed, and the preference which he showed to his Norman followers, in bestowing places of honour or emolument, he soon lost the popularity which he had acquired.

Soon after his accession he paid a visit to his domi-

William the Conqueror.

nions in Normandy; and his absence produced the most fatal effects. His officers taking advantage of it, threw off all restraint, and treated the English so oppressively that their discontents broke out into an extensive insurrection. A secret conspiracy was formed for a general slaughter of the Normans, similar to that of the Danes at a former period. William returned in time to prevent the execution of this bloody enterprise. But from that time, he regarded the English as his inveterate enemies; and the history of his reign, for many years, presents nothing but acts of oppression on his part, followed by insurrections violently suppressed and severely punished.

After a great rising in the North he determined to render the offending districts incapable of repeating the offence: and ordered the whole of that fine country which, for the extent of sixty miles, lies between the Humber and the Tees to be laid waste. The order was executed by the Normans with the most savage barbarity; and it is computed that a hundred thousand persons perished by the hands of the spoilers, or from the effects of cold and hunger. This warfare continued till the

English were wholly subdued, and obliged to submit to their conqueror.

William now took every method to depress his English subjects. It was a fixed maxim in his reign, that no native of the island should ever be advanced to any dignity in the church, the state, or the army. The disturbances and conspiracies, in so many parts of the kingdom, had placed the bulk of the landed proprietors at his mercy; and he rigorously deprived them of their possessions, which he bestowed on Normans. Almost all the most ancient and honourable families were thus reduced to beggary.

William, with similar views, introduced what is called the *Feudal System* into England. He divided the lands of England into baronies, held from the crown for military service; and these were divided into numerous possessions, held by *vassals* of the great barons. These vassals were obliged to render to the barons from whom they held their lands, the same sort of military service which the barons rendered to the crown. Thus every baron, when engaged in war, was followed by a troop of his own vassals, and their dependants, who generally considered him as their only superior. The whole of the baronies, and by far the greater proportion of the inferior possessions, fell into the hands of Normans; and even the English proprietors who retained their estates, were obliged now to hold them as vassals of some Norman baron. The king attempted to abolish the use of the English language, and ordered the pleadings in the courts of law, and all deeds and public writings, to be in French. But it has been remarked that, notwithstanding, the English language stood its ground, and that the Norman-French made less progress than it had done during the preceding reigns.

The latter part of William's life was disturbed by a rebellion of his son Robert, who having been promised the dukedom of Normandy, demanded the fulfilment of this promise in his father's lifetime. William gave him a flat denial, observing that "it was not his custom to throw off his clothes till he went to bed." An open

A ship of the time of William the Conqueror.

quarrel was the consequence; and, after a contest of several years, Robert was besieged by his father, in the castle of Gerberoy, in France, where he had taken shelter. The garrison was strong; and many skirmishes took place. In one of these the king and his son met, and, without knowing each other, engaged with fury. Robert wounded his father in the arm, and threw him from his horse; and the next blow would probably have been fatal, had not the king made himself known by calling for help. Robert, shocked at the dreadful crime he was on the point of committing, threw himself at his father's feet, and implored forgiveness. William sternly withdrew; but afterwards, moved by his son's conduct, restored him to favour.

William's death occurred while on an expedition against the king of France, who had offended him by privately supporting some of the rebellious nobility. It was caused by a bruise in the belly against the pommel of his horse's saddle. He died on the 9th of September, 1087, in the sixty-third year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign.

He was buried in the church of Caen; and a remarkable circumstance occurred at his funeral. As the body was being carried to the grave, a man, who stood on an

eminence, in a loud voice forbade the interment of the body in a spot which the deceased had unjustly seized: "That very spot," he cried, "is the site of my father's house; and I summon the departed soul before the divine tribunal, to answer for the crime." All present were struck by the solemn appeal; and, the man's charge being found to be just, he immediately received satisfaction for the wrong.

William is described by the writers of the time as possessing almost the size and strength of a giant. He was stern, obdurate, and revengeful; but of a vigorous and commanding spirit. Though very far from being one of the *best*, he was probably one of the *greatest*, of the English monarchs.

CHAPTER VI.

William Rufus.—Henry I.—Stephen.

From 1087 to 1154.

William the Conqueror bequeathed the crown of England to his second son, William, surnamed *Rufus*, from his red hair. A party of the Norman barons entered into a conspiracy in favour of his elder brother Robert, who was much beloved, while William was generally detested, from the cruelty of his disposition. It failed; and William afterwards reigned unmolested. His reign was tyrannical; and his death, caused by an arrow, accidentally shot by one of his courtiers in a hunting party, was unlamented. This occurrence happened in the thirteenth year of his reign.

At the time of his death, his elder brother was in Palestine, engaged in the crusades.* His younger

*The Crusades, or wars of the Cross, were great military expeditions, undertaken by the princes of Europe, for the purpose of rescuing the land of Judea (or Palestine) and the holy city of Jerusalem from the hands of the Saracens.

William Rufus.

brother, Henry, immediately assumed the crown; but Robert, on his return from the Holy Land, determined to assert his right of succession.

Robert was generous and brave; but ruined all his enterprises by an incurable indolence, which is said to have been so excessive, that his servants plundered him without shame or concealment; and he is described as lying whole days in his bed, for want of clothes, of which they had robbed him. Being, however, supported by some of the nobility, he raised a small army with which he encountered the large force of his brother, with the valour he was wont to display against the Saracens. Notwithstanding the inequality of force, he was on the point of gaining the victory; but his troops, at last, were routed, and himself taken prisoner. He was confined in the castle of Cardiff, where he died, after a captivity of twenty-eight years; and some historians say that his brother had the barbarity to order him to be

Stephen.

deprived of signt by the application of a red-hot copper basin to his eyes.

In order to confirm his title to the crown, Henry married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III., king of Scotland, and niece of Edgar Atheling, the last descendant of the Saxon royal line. To gain the affections of his subjects, he granted a charter,* conferring on them various rights and privileges. No effect was given, however, to this deed; and it was almost forgotten, till it was made use of in the reign of King John, to serve as a model for the famous *Magna Charta*, to be afterwards noticed. He died in 1135, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign, leaving one child, Matilda, who was married first to the Emperor of Germany, and afterwards to

* A charter is a formal writing by which a sovereign confers rights or privileges on his subjects.

Geoffrey Plantagenet, count of Anjou, by whom she had a son, named Henry.

Matilda, the daughter of the late king, was declared by his will the heiress of the crown; but a rival appeared in the person of Stephen, son of the Count de Blois, who had married Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror. On the king's death, Stephen hastened to England, and through the influence of a party who adhered to him, was proclaimed king at London. The cause of Matilda, however, was espoused by a large portion of the nobility, and a desolating civil war was the consequence, attended with great changes of fortune. At one time Stephen was defeated, and fell into the hands of Matilda, who threw him into prison and had herself crowned: but she was unfit to maintain her power over the turbulent nobility, among whom a conspiracy was formed for the restoration of Stephen. The war was renewed, and ended at last by a treaty, by which Stephen was to enjoy the crown during his life, and be succeeded by Matilda's son, Henry. Stephen died, soon after the conclusion of this treaty, in the year **1154**.

CHAPTER VIII.

HENRY II.—RICHARD I.

FROM 1154 TO 1196.

HENRY II. the first of the royal line of the Plantagenets, commenced his reign by several very popular acts of government. He dismissed the hired troops with whom England was overrun; ordered a number of the castles, which enabled the great barons to maintain a power independent of the crown, to be demolished, and granted charters to several of the towns, by which they

Henry II.

held their privileges directly from himself, and independently of any other superior. These charters laid the foundation of English liberty, as the citizens of the towns were now, for the first time, considered as one of the political orders of the state.

He next attempted to control the overgrown power of the popish clergy, with whom he involved himself in a struggle that lasted during the whole of his reign. In this age the influence of the Pope, and of every degree of the Roman priesthood, was at its highest pitch. The Pope exercised an unbounded sway in the temporal as well as spiritual concerns of every state in Europe, and received as his due, acts of the humblest service from foreign princes. Of this it may be mentioned, as an instance, that when Henry II. and the king of France met the Pope, in the course of some negotiations, at the castle of Torci in France, the two kings dismounted from their horses, and holding the reigns of his bridle,

conducted him into the castle, and assisted him to dismount.

The ecclesiastics of England held themselves independent of any civil power whatever, and assumed an authority superior to that of the king himself. As a first step towards maintaining his authority against their usurpations, Henry promoted to the dignity of archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas à Becket, the Chancellor, a man of great capacity, who from his zeal in the king's service, appeared a fit instrument for executing his designs. No sooner, however, had Becket attained the highest dignity in the church, than he espoused the cause of his new order, and treated the king with the utmost arrogance. This conduct roused the king to a course of proceeding equally violent and unjust. He reared up a series of frivolous suits against the archbishop, in which, by his influence with the barons, he obtained hasty sentences, in contempt of the common forms of justice; and, by this kind of persecution, he succeeded in driving Becket out of the kingdom. But he soon felt the effects of this impolicy. Public feeling, as usual in such cases, began in England, to turn in Becket's favour; and abroad his cause was warmly espoused by the Pope, whose threats of excommunication, though disregarded by the king himself, had such an effect on the kingdom as to shake the foundation of the royal authority.

After an ineffectual resistance, Henry was obliged to replace Becket in his dignities. His victory gave him more absolute sway than ever; and his arrogance at length became so intolerable to the king, that he was heard to say with bitterness, that he had no friends left, otherwise he would be freed from the tyranny of that ungrateful and imperious prelate. These words were constructed, by four of the king's attendants, into a desire for the archbishop's death. They immediately proceeded to Canterbury; and entering the church where Becket was engaged in the evening service. they murdered him before the altar. The king was overwhelmed with grief and terror on account of this murder, which there is no reason to believe he had in any degree coun-

tenanced. The Pope, being made sensible of his innocence, granted him a pardon, on condition of his unlimited submission to the Church. Becket's murderers were allowed to remain unmolested; but he acquired the reputation of a saint, and some pretended miracles were ascribed to his shrine.

The reign of this king is remarkable for the conquest of Ireland. That island, though early converted to Christianity; and though it had made some advancement in civilization, had at this period fallen into great barbarism. It was under the dominion of several independent chieftains, or kings, who were in a state of constant warfare with each other. One of these having been driven from his dominions, applied for assistance to Henry, who, having granted permission to his subjects to assist the Irish prince, soon found a pretext for invading the island in person, which he did in 1171. He met with no opposition from the inhabitants, who, worn out with contention, gladly submitted to him, in the prospect of future tranquillity. Since that time Ireland remained an appendage of the English crown, till its union with Great Britain.

The latter part of Henry's reign was embittered by family dissensions. By his queen Eleanor, he had four sons, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John. Henry had been anointed king during his father's life, and appointed his successor: but he also demanded a share in the government, which being refused, he prevailed on his two younger brothers to join him in rebellion against their father. They obtained the support of the kings of France and Scotland; Henry's Norman dominions were invaded by the king of France, accompanied by the rebellious princes, and the king of Scotland invaded England.

Henry, however, overthrew the forces of his enemies, both abroad and at home. He defeated the king of Scotland; took him prisoner, and compelled him, before releasing him, to do homage for the Scottish crown. For a few years he enjoyed tranquillity; but he was again involved in differences with his children, in the course

of which two of them, Henry and Geoffrey died. Richard, supported by the king of France, again invaded his father's continental dominions, and compelled him to accept a peace, on terms which he chose to dictate; none of which affected the king so deeply as the discovery that the youngest and favourite son, John, had been privately in the interest of his enemies. He soon after died of a broken heart, in 1189, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign.

Henry II. was possessed of great virtues, both public and private: his long reign, though embittered by many circumstances painful to himself, was happy for his people: and the English nation to this day enjoys the benefits of which he laid the foundation.

Richard I.

Henry was succeeded by his son Richard I. surnamed *Cœur de Lion*, or the Lion-hearted, from his undaunted bravery. Richard's better feelings were strongly ex-

cited by his father's death. He accused himself of being his murderer, and was overwhelmed with grief and remorse. Instead of rewarding those who had aided him in his unnatural conduct, he banished them from his presence, observing, that those who had betrayed one sovereign, would never be faithful to another.

Richard's celebrity is wholly founded on the part he took in the Crusades. The enthusiasm which gave rise to these expeditions against the infidels was now at its height, and extended through all classes of society. Excited by it, in conjunction with his ruling passion for military glory, Richard exhausted the resources of his kingdom in preparations to join the Christian host in Palestine, into which, in alliance with Philip of France, he led an army of a hundred thousand men. Richard's incomparable valour raised him to the command of the whole forces of the crusaders; and he carried on a warfare more glorious than useful, with Saladin, the renowned Saracen monarch, whom he at length defeated in the great battle of Ascalon. His army, however, was too much exhausted to be able to prosecute his victory; and a three years' truce* with Saladin enabled Richard to return to his kingdom, the distracted state of which required his presence.

In travelling through Germany, in his way homewards, he was seized by the archduke of Austria, with whom he had quarrelled in Palestine, and thrown into a dungeon, where he was so long closely confined, that his subjects remained in total ignorance of his fate. His discovery is said to have been effected by Blondel, a minstrel who had been attached to his service, who after wandering over many lands in search of his master, at last found out the place of his captivity, by hearing him repeat, with his harp, a favourite air played by the minstrel without the walls of the prison. When Richard's situation was known, the archduke of Austria, and the

* The truce was for three years, three months, three weeks, three days, and three hours, a number supposed in that ignorant age, to possess some magical virtues.

emperor, who had joined in detaining him, found it impossible to retain the champion of Christendom longer in their hands; but they exacted a heavy ransom, which Richard agreed to pay. The amount was raised in England with the utmost alacrity; and Richard was permitted to return to his dominions, after an absence of four years, fifteen months of which he had spent in a prison.

During Richard's absence, his brother John endeavoured to usurp his crown; first, by raising a party against him at home, and then by prevailing on the king of France and the emperor of Germany to prevent his return. But the glory of Richard's actions preserved his popularity among his subjects, by whom, on his arrival, he was received with universal joy. John was under the necessity of making his submission, and beseeching forgiveness, which was readily granted. The remainder of Richard's reign was spent in a war with France, which was terminated only by his death. While besieging the castle of Chaluz, in France, he received a wound from an arrow, which, through unskilful treatment, proved fatal, in the year 1199, and the tenth year of his reign.

Richard was more ambitious to be distinguished as a valiant knight than as a good king. He neglected the affairs of his kingdom, and was prodigal both of the blood and treasures of his subjects, in the indulgence of his own propensity for war. He possessed, however, many admirable and amiable qualities, which would have borne better fruits in a more enlightened age.

John.

CHAPTER VIII.

John.—Henry III.—Edward I.

From 1199 to 1307.

Richard left the crown, by his will, to his brother John, to the exclusion of Arthur, the son of his brother Geoffrey, then a boy of twelve years of age. The claim of Arthur to the succession was supported by the king of France; and, as the character of John was hateful both to his English and Norman subjects, a strong union was formed against him. For some time Arthur's cause seemed prosperous; and he himself behaved with a spirit and bravery beyond his years; but he was at length surprised, taken prisoner, and confined in the castle of

Falaise. His fate has not been precisely ascertained. According to some, he perished by falling from the ramparts of the castle, in an attempt to escape; but the account most generally received is, that John, after vainly endeavouring to persuade some of his officers to put his nephew to death, went at midnight to his dungeon, and, notwithstanding his tears and supplications for mercy, stabbed him with his own hand.

This inhuman cruelty rendered John an object of general detestation. The Norman barons would no longer support him in defending that province from the king of France; and, in a short time, it was for ever lost to the crown of England.

John next engaged in a dispute with the Pope, respecting the election of an archbishop of Canterbury. The right of choice was disputed between the bishops and the Augustine monks. John sided with the former; and an appeal having been made to the Pope, he set aside the persons named by both parties, and insisted on the appointment of a third person. John refused compliance; and the Pope laid the kingdom under an *Interdict*, a terrible sentence in those days. Its effect was, that all divine service was put a stop to: the churches were shut up; the dead were refused Christian burial, and thrown into ditches, or on the highways; marriages were celebrated in the churchyards; and the people ordered to submit to the most severe penances. This calamity rendered the king, who was the cause of it, more odious than ever; and the Pope, to follow up the blow, pronounced sentence of *excommunication* against him, by which he was declared impious, and unfit for human society; his subjects freed from their oath of obedience, and all Christian princes exhorted to assist in dethroning him.

The king of France took this opportunity of invading England; but hatred of a foreign enemy overcame the dislike of the English to their king, who speedily found himself at the head of an army of 60,000 men. The Pope now offered, if John would submit to his authority, to remove the sentence of excommunication. The king

agreed to surrender the crown of England, and to hold it from the Pope as his *master!* and further to pay him a large sum as tribute; and he publicly took an oath to this effect, in the presence of the Pope's legate, or commissioner, who received his submission with the utmost insolence, trampling under his feet the tribute-money which John placed in his hands. The French king was ordered by the Pope to withdraw his troops; but determined to persist. His fleet, however, being attacked by the English, and almost wholly destroyed, he was under the necessity of giving up his enterprise.

John being thus freed from his enemies, rendered himself more and more hateful by his cruelty and debauchery. At length, the barons formed a combination for the purpose of defending their rights; and were assisted by Langton, the archbishop of Canterbury, a man who was worthy of his high dignity. The prelate produced a copy of the old charter of Henry I., and exhorted them to demand a renewal of it. The king at first peremptorily refused compliance; but after a long contention, finding himself wholly unsupported, he was compelled to submit. A meeting between him and the barons took place on the 15th of June, 1215, in a meadow between Windsor and Staines, called *Runnimede;* where the king solemnly signed the *Magna Charta* or *Great Charter.*

Although the principal object of this deed was to secure the rights of the higher orders of the state, yet those of the great body of the people were not disregarded. The rights of the barons to the inheritance and possessions of their lands were secured against the oppressive fines and forfeitures which used to be exacted by the crown; and the vassals of the barons obtained the same security against their exactions. Merchants were freed from all arbitrary impositions; and all freemen were allowed full liberty to enter or quit the kingdom. Courts of justice were made stationary, instead of following the king's person; and declared to be open to every one; justice was not to be bought, sold, or delayed; and no freeman was to suffer in his person, free-

dom, or property, unless by the judgment of his peers, and according to the law of the land. Such is the general tenour of the *Great Charter*, which for many ages served as the great bulwark of English liberty.

The faithless king, however, though compelled to sign the *Charter*, had no intention of observing it. He retired to the Isle of Wight, where he employed himself privately in raising a body of foreign troops, and in obtaining a *bull*, or decree, from the Pope, annulling the Charter. He then suddenly attacked the barons, who were wholly unprepared, and committed the most horrid cruelties on them and their dependants. In their extremity, the barons applied for protection to the king of France, and offered the kingdom to his son Louis. This prince accordingly invaded England with a powerful army, and entered London, the citizens doing homage to him as their sovereign. His conduct, however, exicted the suspicions of the English nobles as to his intentions towards them. Many of them returned to John, who was once more at the head of a considerable army. But as he was marching from Lynn in Norfolk into Lincolnshire, the rear of his army was overtaken by the tide, and all his carriages, treasures, and baggage, were swept away. He himself escaped with difficulty, and arived at Swinstead abbey, where grief and agitation threw him into a fever. He was removed to Newark, where he died on the 19th of October, 1216, in the eighteenth year of his reign.

John was succeeded by his eldest son, Henry III., then a boy of nine years of age. Fortunately for him, the office of regent, or protector of the kingdom, devolved on the earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of honour and capacity. By his wise measures, he brought back the barons to the cause of their sovereign, and succeeded in expelling the French from the kingdom.

When the king grew up, he appeared very unfit to maintain his authority against the turbulent barons, whose long habits of resistance to the crown rendered them ungovernable. At that time they possessed fortified castles in England, by means of which they op-

Henry III.

pressed their vassals and the common people, and often set the king at defiance. The conduct of the baron de Breauté may be mentioned as an instance. When thirty-five verdicts were at one time found against him in a court of justice on account of his having driven that number of persons from their lands, he came to the court with a body of armed men, seized the judge, and imprisoned him in Bedford Castle; and it was only after an open war with the king's troops that he was subdued. Availing themselves of the soft and easy temper of the king, the barons set no bounds to their lawless conduct; and a civil war would have ensued, had it not been for the beneficial influence of the clergy, who threatened the barons with excommunication, if they persisted in their contempt of the royal authority,—a threat which, in that age, seldom failed in its effect.

Henry married Eleanor, daughter of the count of

Provence, and disgusted his subjects by his partiality to the natives of that country, on whom he lavished all his favours. Under their influence, his government became unjust and oppressive; and the laws for the protection of liberty and property began to be openly trampled on. To these causes of discontent was added his wasting the resources of the country in a foolish attempt to gain the crown of Sicily for his son Edmund. He authorised the Pope to take measures for conquering this island at his expense, which he endeavoured to defray by levying large sums from his subjects. On his demanding supplies from the great council of the nation, consisting of the dignified clergy, barons, and great landholders, which now began to receive the name of *the Parliament*, that body refused unless on condition that he should ratify the *Magna Charta*, which he accordingly did with great solemnity. Having obtained the supplies he wanted, he no longer regarded his oath, but allowed his foreign favourites, in his name, to oppress and plunder the people as before.

This misconduct afforded the barons grounds for further resistance to the king's authority. The parliament refused the supplies they had granted; and the king was obliged to allow them to draw up a new plan of government. In this work of reformation, they proceeded in such a manner, that they obtained the name of the *Mad Parliament*. Some of their resolutions, however led to permanent benefits. They laid the foundation of the *House of Commons*, by ordering that four *Knights of the Shire* should be chosen by each county, who should inquire into the grievances of the people, and lay them before the ensuing meeting of Parliament. All the former officers of state were dismissed, and twenty-four barons, at the head of whom was Simon de Montford, earl of Leicester, were appointed to finish the new plan of the government. They resolved to keep the government in their own hands: and actually obtained a resolution of parliament, that their authority should continue during the whole life of the king, and of his son, Prince Edward.

This would have been submitted to by the weak-minded king; but it was vigorously resisted by the young prince Edward, who had gained great popularity. A civil war ensued: and after the country had been desolated by the contending parties, a battle took place at Lewes, in which the prince was defeated and taken prisoner, together with his father. Leicester now governed the kingdom in the name of the king, and to strengthen his interest with the people, he summoned a parliament, to which, besides the barons and churchmen of his own party, he ordered returns to be made of two knights from every shire, and also of deputies from the towns. This parliament was assembled in the year 1265, which is considered the beginning of the *House of Commons*, the representatives of the counties and the boroughs now, for the first time, sitting as members of the parliament, though it does not appear that, as yet, they sat as a separate body.

During all this time, Leicester kept both the king and prince in his custody. The latter, however, made his escape, and was soon at the head of a powerful army, while Leicester, whose ambition had now disgusted the nation, was deserted by most of his adherents. He was obliged to meet the prince with a very inferior force, and was defeated and slain at Evesham, on the 4th of May, 1265. The old king had been placed by the rebels in the front of the battle, where he was wounded, and in great danger; but crying out, "I am Henry of Winchester, your king!" he was saved by the soldier who was on the point of striking him down.

This rebellion being thus subdued, Henry passed the rest of his life in tranquillity, and died in 1272, in the fifty-seventh year of his reign, the longest in the history of England, excepting that of George III.

England was in a wretched state during this long reign, owing to the extreme feebleness of the government. No man was secure in his life or property; and whole villages were frequently plundered and burnt by bands of robbers, who overran the country. Very often the juries who were assembled to try such criminals,

proved to be their own companions. Even the higher orders, and members of the king's household were guilty of such practices, and said in excuse, that, receiving no wages from him, they were obliged to rob for their support. At this time, the Jews suffered intolerable oppression, not only in England, but over all Europe. Henry extorted great sums from them: in one year he made them pay 60,000 marks, a sum equal to the whole yearly revenue of the crown. King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Bristol; and, on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he should comply. The Jew lost seven teeth, and then paid the money. They suffered similar treatment under Henry's successor, Edward I.; and the cruelties they underwent in his reign are a proof of the hardening effect of inveterate prejudice; for Edward was not a cruel prince, and the Jews were the only portion of his subjects whom he oppressed.

Edward was on his return from the Holy Land, where he had distinguished himself by his valour against the infidels, when he received the news of his father's death. He was joyfully received by his subjects; and immediately set about correcting the disorders caused by Henry's weak conduct. In particular, he severely fined and dismissed many judges who had been guilty of corruption in the exercise of their offices. He set on foot inquiries into the encroachments on the lands of the crown, which he carried so far as to call in question the titles of the nobility to estates which they had possessed for several generations. This excited a spirit of resistance. Earl Warrens, being required to show his titles, drew his sword, and declared that William of Normandy had conquered the kingdom, not for himself alone, but for the adventurers who joined with him; and that he was resolved to maintain what his ancestors had acquired. The king took warning by this specimen of the haughty spirit of the barons, and pushed his inquiries no further.

Edward now resolved to make himself master of Wales. The people of that country were the ancient

Edward I.

Britons, who had maintained their freedom, when the Romans and Saxons subdued the greatest part of the island. They had always been troublesome and dangerous neighbours to England. It was their practice to make inroads, and ravage the country, whenever it was disturbed by disputes at home, or engaged in wars abroad. They had taken a part in the rebellion of the earl of Leicester, in the preceding reign; and their prince, Llewellyn, on Edward's coming to the throne, refused to do homage to him for his territories. Seizing this pretext, Edward invaded Wales: and Llewellyn, after a brave defence of his country, was defeated and slain, on the 11th of December, 1282. David, his brother, escaping from the fight, remained for some time concealed in the obscure recesses of the country; but

being taken, he was most unjustly condemned and executed as a traitor to a government he had never acknowledged.

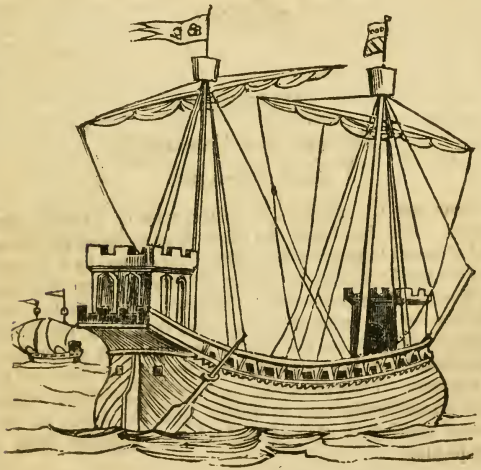
In order to extinguish the spirit of liberty, which Edward conceived to be much animated by the songs of the Welsh bards, he adopted the horrible, and, in a prince of his general character, almost incredible resolution, of ordering them all to be collected and put to death. To reconcile the people to his government, he brought his queen to be delivered at Caernarvon, that the Prince of Wales might be a native Welshman. In this character the young prince was gladly received; and Wales has ever since been annexed to the English crown; the heir apparent being usually invested with the dignity of Prince of Wales.

Edward next conceived the design of extending his sway over Scotland. The death of Alexander III., and of his infant grand-daughter, who succeeded him, opened the crown of Scotland to the claim of several candidates, the principal of whom were Robert Bruce and John Baliol. The dispute between them was referred to Edward, who availed himself of the opportunity by advancing to the borders of Scotland, with a large army, under pretence of deciding the difference. He summoned the Scottish barons to meet him at Norham, on the southern banks of the Tweed, and declared in favour of Baliol, whose feeble character would render him a convenient tool. He then proceeded to treat Baliol, and the Scots as his subjects; and, on Baliol unexpectedly revolting against such treatment, Edward defeated his army at Dunbar, took him prisoner, and obliged him to renounce his crown, and then allowed him to retire into France, where he died.

After the dethronement of Baliol, Edward treated the Scots like a conquered people, till, roused by the example of the celebrated Sir William Wallace, they rose against their oppressor. Under this hero, they maintained a glorious but unequal contest for eight years. Scotland, at length, was overwhelmed by the immense forces of Edward; and Wallace, who wandered with a few adherents among the mountains, was betrayed into

his hands. Wallace was brought to London; and, after being treated with great indignity, was condemned and executed as a traitor, and his head and limbs exposed in the chief cities in England: an action which has fixed an everlasting stain on the memory of Edward.

Robert Bruce, the grandson of the rival of Baliol, now stood forward as the champion of Scotland; he drove the English forces out of the country, and was crowned king. Edward, inflamed with rage, swore that he would march into Scotland, and never return till he had subdued it. He kept his oath, for he never returned. After a series of fruitless attempts against Bruce and his adherents, who issuing from the mountains and fastnesses, cut off great numbers of the English troops, Edward was taken ill at Carlisle, and died, enjoining his son with his last breath, never to give up the enterprise till Scotland was subdued. His death took place in 1307, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign.



A ship of the time of Henry III.

Edward II.

CHAPTER IX.

Edward II.—Edward III.

From 1307 to 1377.

Edward II., unlike his father, was of a feeble character. He abandoned the attempt to conquer Scotland, and allowed himself to be entirely governed by a favourite, Pierce Gaveston, in whose society he spent his time in frivolous amusements. Gaveston so disgusted the nobility by his insolent behaviour, that they combined against him, and on the king's persisting in supporting him, broke out in open rebellion, headed by the earl of Lancaster. They surprised and seized Gaveston, whom they immediately put to death; and the king, on the barons making a show of submission, granted them a free pardon.

The king now determined to prosecute the war with Scotland; and, calling out the whole military force of the kingdom, marched into that country at the head of a hundred thousand men. Bruce could muster only thirty thousand to oppose him; and these unequal forces met at a place called Bannockburn, near the town of Stirling. A battle took place on the 25th June, 1314, in which the English were defeated with great slaughter; and Edward himself narrowly escaped by flight. This battle decided the contest, and secured the freedom of Scotland.

Edward, unmindful of the fate of Gaveston, made choice of a new favourite, Hugh le Despenser, and thus again roused the enmity of the nobility. Another rebellion broke out, headed as before, by the earl of Lancaster. The rebels, however, were unsuccessful; and Lancaster being taken, was put to death with the same cruelty which he had shown to Gaveston. But the queen, Isabella, sister of the king of France, a violent and profligate woman, joined the cause of the malcontents. Being then at the court of her brother, she refused to return to England, and collected a numerous party of banished nobles, with one of whom, Roger Mortimer, she formed a connexion which dishonoured her husband. With these attendants she landed in England at the head of a small force; but the people everywhere joined her. Despenser, and his father, a respectable old man, in his ninetieth year, were taken, and put to death, with several noblemen of the king's party.

The king himself was seized while attempting to seek refuge in Wales. He was placed under the custody of two ruffians, called Maltravers and Gournay, whose instructions from the infamous queen and her paramour may be learned from their actions. They endeavoured to put an end to the king's life by a course of ill-treatment. They hurried him from place to place, in the middle of the night, and half naked. Among other acts of brutality, it is said that they shaved him for sport in the open fields, using filthy water from a neighbouring ditch; an insult which his fortitude, hitherto great,

could not withstand. Finding that he continued to live, notwithstanding their cruelties, they resolved on his murder: which for the sake of concealment, they ac compliished, at Berkley Castle, by running a horn pip up his body, through which they conveyed a red-hot iro into his bowels. His horrid shrieks, however, betraye the dreadful secret; and the whole was soon afterward made known by the confession of one of the murderers This shocking deed was done on the 21st of September, 1327, in the twentieth year of his reign.

Edward III., at the time of his father's murder, was only fifteen years of age, and was, therefore, obliged to submit to the queen and Mortimer, who, by their rapacious conduct, drew upon themselves the hatred of the whole nation. It was however prevented from immediately breaking out, by the appearance of a foreign enemy. Robert Bruce, availing himself of the weakness of the government, invaded and ravaged the northern counties. Edward displayed the warlike spirit which afterwards distinguished him. He determined to cut off the Scots in their retreat; but after having shown his own valour, failed in consequence of the misconduct of Mortimer. The Scots gained their own country in safety; and the war was soon afterwards put an end to by a treaty.

Mortimer becoming more and more odious to the nation, Edward determined to shake off his authority. The queen and Mortimer (who had been created earl of March) resided together in the castle of Nottingham; and Edward, in concert with some of the nobility, determined to seize him there. They succeeded in surprising the castle; and Mortimer was seized in a chamber adjoining to that of the queen. She in vain implored the barons to "have pity on her gentle Mortimer;" but her entreaties were disregarded. He was immediately brought before the parliament, condemned, and hanged, and his body remained for some days exposed on the gibbet. The queen was imprisoned for life.

Edward made another attempt against Scotland, under the pretence of supporting Edward Baliol in his pre-

Edward III.

tentions to the throne, against David, the son of the great Robert Bruce. Several bloody battles were fought; but Edward, seeing no prospect of success, abandoned any further hostilities against that nation.

Edward had long entertained a design upon the crown of France, founded on a pretension to the inheritance, in right of Isabella his mother. It would require too much detail to explain the nature of this claim; but it is sufficient to say, that it is universally held to be wholly groundless, and contrary to the law of succession established in France. Edward, however, determined to make it, and the assistance given to the Scottish enemies by the French king, pretexts for invading France. At the beginning of the war, a great sea-fight took place, in which the French were defeated. In this, the first naval engagement on record between the two nations, the French had 2800 ships destroyed, and 20,000 seamen

slain. Edward's other operations were not successful; and he agreed to a truce, which was preserved for a considerable time; Edward being in no condition to renew the war, having exhausted all the supplies which had been granted by parliament. After an interval of six years, he renewed his attempt, and landed on the French coast, with an army of 30,000 men, accompanied by his son Edward, surnamed the Black Prince, probably from the colour of his armour.

King Philip hastened to meet the invading force with an army of 120,000 men; and on the 26th of August, 1346, they met near the village of Cressy. Edward disposed his small force with the utmost judgment; but Philip, trusting to his numbers, yielded to his impatience to engage. The French began the attack with great fury; and it fell chiefly on that part of the English army where the Prince of Wales was posted. Edward, who was placed on an eminence from which he could survey the battle, was urged to send succour to his son; but he refused, saying, that his son should be indebted to his own merit only for victory. The contest continued till night, when the French were totally defeated, and Philip, continuing to fight desperately, was forced by his attendants from the field. Thirty thousand of the French were killed, including a great number of nobles, knights, and gentlemen. Notwithstanding the great slaughter of the enemy, the English lost only three knights, one esquire, and a very small number of inferior rank.

After this victory, Edward besieged Calais, which sustained a siege of eleven months, and yielded in consequence of the defenders having suffered the extremities of famine. They at last offered to submit, on their lives being spared; and Edward, full of wrath at their obstinate resistance, agreed only on condition that six of their most considerable citizens should be delivered up to him barefooted, and with ropes about their necks, ready for immediate execution. This cruel demand struck the inhabitants with terror; in the midst of which, Eustace de St. Pierre, one of the principal citizens

came forward and offered himself as one of the victims. His example was instantly followed by five others; and these six self-devoted men entered Edward's camp in the manner prescribed, and laid the keys of the city at his feet. He ordered them to be executed; but his queen, Philippa, interceded, and by her tears and entreaties, procured their pardon. The surrender of Calais took place on the 4th of August, 1347.

Queen Philippa, who possessed as much spirit as generosity, had just arrived at Calais, after having done her husband great service. David, king of Scotland, had taken advantage of Edward's absence to invade England; but the queen took the field at the head of an army, and, defeating the Scottish army at Neville's Cross, near Durham, took the king prisoner, and carried him in triumph to London, where he was kept in captivity eleven years.

In the year 1349, the terrible plague, which continued for several years to ravage almost all the countries of the world, appeared in England, and 50,000 persons perished in London alone. This dreadful scourge interrupted for some time the war between England and France.

During this time Philip of France died, and was succeeded by his son John. Edward now invaded France in two places; one army commanded by himself, landed at Calais, and another, under the Black Prince, on the coast of Gascony. Edward soon found it necessary to return to England, in consequence of a threatened invasion of the Scots, leaving his son in France. The Black Prince was at the head of only about 12,000 men; while King John marched against him with an army of 60,000.

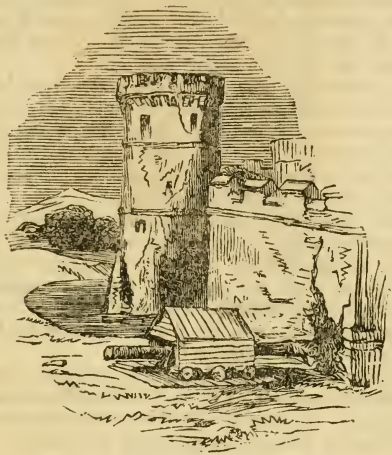
On the 18th September, 1356, the two armies came in sight of each other near Poictiers. The Black Prince, on seeing such an army advancing upon him, is said to have exclaimed, "God help us! nothing remains for us but to fight bravely." The cardinal of Perigord, who was with the French army, endeavoured, by mediation, to prevent the shedding of Christian blood. He found

Edward the Black Prince.

Edward willing to agree to any terms consistent with the honour of himself and his army; but the French king would agree to nothing less than the prince surrendering himself prisoner with a hundred of his attendants. The prince replied, "that he would never be made a prisoner but with his sword in his hand;" and the troops prepared for battle.

On the following morning the armies engaged; and after a desperate encounter, the French were completely routed. The French king fought with great valour; his nobles fell around him, and his son, scarce fourteen years of age, was wounded by his side. Finding himself almost alone, he called out repeatedly, "Where is my cousin, the Prince of Wales?" intimating his willingness to surrender to so noble an enemy. At length, being told that the prince was near him, he threw down his sword. He was conducted to the prince, whose generosity was now as remarkable as his skill and courage had been before. The prince received the captive

king with such marks of sincere kindness and respect, that he burst into tears, and declared that, notwithstanding the greatness of his misfortune, he rejoiced that he had fallen into the hands of so generous an enemy.



Ancient fortress, ditch, and battering ram.

John continued to be treated in the same manner after his arrival in England. He was lodged, with his young son, who was taken with him, first in the palace of the Savoy, and afterwards at Windsor. His ransom was fixed at three millions of gold crowns,* and he was permitted to return to France; but, finding himself unable to raise the money, he honourably returned to his captivity, where he remained till his death in 1364.

The last military exploits of the Black Prince, were

* About 1,500,000*l.* sterling.

in Spain. Peter the *Cruel*, king of that country, having, by his oppressions, caused a revolt of his subjects under his natural brother, Henry of Trastamare, applied for assistance to the prince, who engaged in his cause; and entering Spain with 30,000 men, defeated Henry, and replaced Peter on the throne. No sooner, however, had the prince and his army left Spain, than Henry renewed his attacks on Peter, whom he at last defeated and slew with his own hand.

Soon afterwards, the Black Prince was seized with an illness, which proved fatal on the 8th of June, 1376, in the forty-seventh year of his age. His father did not long survive him; he died on the 1st of June, 1377, in the fifty-first year of his reign; and was succeeded by Richard, only son of the Black Prince.

During this reign the parliament rose into greater consideration than at any former time. Not that it was able to prevent the laying on of taxes without its authority, and other extensions of the king's power; but its constant remonstrances had the effect of checking such proceedings; and, at any rate, prevented them from acquiring the authority of usage.

The first toll for mending the highways was levied in this reign, for repairing the road between St. Giles's and Temple-bar. Gunpowder appears to have been first used for artillery by Edward at the battle of Cressy.

Richard II.

CHAPTER X.

Richard II.—Henry IV.—Henry V.

From 1377 to 1422.

Richard II. was eleven years old when he succeeded his grandfather. Being under age, the government was in the hands of his uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, the sons of the late king.

At this time the people were in a state of great discontent, owing in some degree to the discourses of John Ball, a seditious preacher, who went about the country spreading doctrines of liberty and equality. A more substantial reason was afforded by the imposition of a

poll-tax, by which, as the poor paid as much as the rich, they were heavily oppressed. A dreadful insurrection broke out, headed by Wat Tyler, a blacksmith: a mob of 300,000 men assembled in the neighbourhood of London; and the king (his uncles being out of the kingdom) took refuge in the Tower. The multitude entered the city, murdering every one who appeared to be a gentleman or a foreigner, and destroying the houses of the nobility. The king determined to meet and confer with them, and sent them a message to that effect: after which he went with a few unarmed attendants to the place appointed, where he spoke to the multitude in so gentle a manner, and gave them such assurances of redress, that they retired quietly to their houses.

The more desperate of the party, under Tyler himself, in the mean time, continued their ravages. On the following day, he and his followers, 20,000 in number, met the king in Smithfield, attended by a small body of horsemen. Tyler addressed the king with so much insolence, that Walworth, the lord-mayor, unable to restrain his indignation, struck him from his horse with a blow of his mace, and he was instantly despatched by some of the attendants. The multitude were confounded; and before they could recover themselves, the young king addressed them with great dignity and mildness, desiring them not to be concerned at the loss of their leader, but to follow him. The people, struck with awe, followed the king into the fields, where he gave them the same assurance as their companions had before received.

Richard's conduct on this trying occasion gave a promise of his future character which was not realised. As he advanced in years, his character became more and more weak and trifling. At the age of sixteen he married Anne of Bohemia, whose virtues made her to be long remembered under the title of the "Good Queen Anne."

The occurrences of the great part of Richard's reign are without interest. By a course of folly and misconduct he lost the affections of all ranks. At length, a quarrel

having taken place between Henry Bolingbroke, son of the king's uncle, the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk, Richard appointed it to be decided by single combat; but when the combatants had entered the lists, he banished them both from England; Bolingbroke for ten years, and Norfolk for life. During Bolingbroke's banishment his father died, and the king took possession of his estates.

Bolingbroke, enraged at this conduct, determined to dethrone the king; and, taking advantage of his absence in Ireland, landed in Yorkshire with only sixty followers. He was immediately joined by many noblemen, particularly the earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry Percy, surnamed *Hotspur;* and soon found himself at the head of a force which the king was unable to resist. Richard surrendered himself; and, after being conveyed to the Tower, and formally deposed, he was imprisoned in Pontefract Castle, where it is generally believed that he was murdered by ruffians employed for that purpose. Some writers say, that he was struck dead by a blow of a pole-axe,—others, that he was starved to death, after having contrived to prolong his life fourteen days, by feeding on the flocks of his bed.* His death happened in 1399, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and twenty-third of his reign.

Richard being deposed, Henry Bolingbroke (now duke of Lancaster) claimed the crown, on the ground that Edmund, earl of Lancaster, from whom he was descended, was not the *youngest* son of Henry III. but the *eldest;* and that, in consequence of some deformity in his person, his younger brother Edward had obtained his birthright, and succeeded to the crown in his stead. This story was known to be false; but Henry's claim was admitted without opposition, though it laid the foun-

* It has been lately contended by Mr. Tytler, in his *History of Scotland*, that Richard escaped from England, and lived many years under the protection of the king of Scotland; and that he died and was buried at Stirling. But the evidence brought forward by that able writer does not seem sufficient to set aside the generally received account.

dation for the bloody wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, which afterwards desolated England. He bore the title of Henry IV.

Henry IV.

His reign was little else than a series of rebellions and insurrections. The most formidable was that of the earl of Northumberland, to whom Henry had been chiefly indebted for the crown. It arose from a trifling quarrel about the delivery of some Scottish prisoners taken by young Henry Percy; and Northumberland, with the assistance of the Scots and Welsh, attempted to dethrone the king. The rebels, commanded by Percy, were defeated at Shrewsbury, on the 20th of July, 1403, and their leader slain. The earl submitted, and was pardoned. Another great insurrection broke out in 1405, of which the archbishop of York was a principal leader. It was

suppressed without bloodshed; and all the leaders, including the archbishop, were executed. This was the first instance of the punishment of death being inflicted on a clergyman of high rank.

In this reign the cruel and absurd practice of burning people on account of their religion was first introduced. The celebrated Wickliffe had, some time before, preached against the errors of the church of Rome, and his doctrines gained considerable ground in England. Henry, himself, before his accession to the throne, was believed to favour them; but he was persuaded to suppress them; and several of the *Lollards* (as the followers of Wickliffe were called) were burnt in Smithfield.

Henry died in 1413, in the thirteenth year of his reign. He was succeeded by his eldest son Henry.

Henry V., in his father's life-time, had been remarkable for his idle and dissipated habits; and his conduct, notwithstanding the bravery and high spirit which it sometimes displayed, had much embittered his father's latter years. On one occasion, one of his profligate companions being committed to prison, for a robbery, by the chief-justice Gascoyne, Henry behaved with great violence, and even struck the chief-justice, who immediately ordered him to be carried to prison. Henry feeling the impropriety of his conduct, submitted to his punishment, acknowledging its justice. When this circumstance was reported to the king, he joyfully exclaimed, "Happy is the king who has a magistrate so resolute in the discharge of his duty; still happier in having a son so submissive to the laws." In order to estimate the merit of the behaviour, both of the judge and the offender, we must remember that it happened in an age very different from the present, when every judge can execute the laws without fear or hesitation, and every man, be his rank what it may, must yield them entire obedience.

No sooner did Henry ascend the throne, than his behaviour was totally changed. He dismissed his former companions, and devoted himself to the duties of government, in the exercise of which he exhibited prudence,

Henry V.

justice and liberality. His allowing the continued persecution of the *Lollards* was the only blot in his domestic government.

His natural disposition, seconded, it is said, by the dying advice of his father, led Henry to make war upon France. To furnish a pretext for a quarrel, he demanded that the provinces in that country which had been taken from the English, should be restored; and this demand being, of course, refused, he invaded France with 50,000 men, in the year 1415. He besieged and took the town of Harfleur; but an infectious distemper breaking out in his army, soon reduced it to little more than 12,000, many of whom were wasted by disease. In this situation,

Henry was met, near the village of Azincourt, by an army of 100,000 men, under the duke of Orleans.

The memorable battle of Azincourt was fought on the 25th of October, 1415. The French, trusting to their superior numbers, passed the night in idle jollity; while the English king made the most skilful arrangements for the battle. In the morning, the onset was made by the English, who, after using their arrows, rushed on the French with their swords and battle-axes, and drove them back with great slaughter. The duke of Alençon, who had sworn to kill or take the king, clove his helmet, but was struck down by Henry, and slain. This battle was very fatal to France, from the immense loss of her nobility, slain or taken prisoners: and it is said, that 8000 gentlemen were killed. The whole loss of the English is said not to have exceeded eighty.

Henry returned in triumph to England; the next year he again invaded France, but met with no resistance, and a treaty was concluded, by which it was settled that the French king should enjoy his dignity for life, that Henry should marry his daughter Catherine, and be heir to his crown; and that France and England should be thenceforward united in one government.

Henry, soon after his marriage, returned to England; but the *dauphin* (or heir of the French king) refused to submit to the treaty, and kept possession of several towns. Henry returned to France, and died there on the 31st of August, 1422, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and tenth of his reign, leaving a son, who succeeded him.

His widow, Catherine of France, soon afterwards married a Welsh gentleman, Owen Tudor, by whom she had a son, Edmund, earl of Richmond, who was the father of Henry, earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII.

Henry VI.

CHAPTER XI.

Henry VI.—Edward IV.—Edward V.—Richard III.

From 1422 to 1485.

Henry VI. succeeded to the throne when nine months old. The duke of Bedford was appointed by the parliament protector of the kingdom. At this time, the English were masters of almost the whole of France; and Henry was carried to that country, and crowned at Paris. The dauphin, however, gradually gained ground against the English forces; and notwithstanding the efforts of the duke of Bedford, the English were con-

stantly worsted; till in the year 1450, they were totally driven out of France.

England, meanwhile, was torn by factions; and the king, as he grew up, discovered total incapacity for government. One of the contending parties, by way of increasing its influence, brought about a marriage between the king and Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, king of Sicily, a woman of great capacity, courage, and ability.

In 1450, Richard, duke of York, began to entertain the design of aspiring to the crown. His right was undoubtedly preferable to that of the king. Henry derived his descent from the duke of Lancaster, the *third* son of Edward III., while the duke of York was descended from the duke of Clarence, the *second* son of that king. At this time the country was in a most unsettled state. An insurrection broke out under a man named Jack Cade, who after defeating 15,000 of the king's troops, in a regular engagement, entered London, of which he for some time kept possession. He put to death several of the nobility, and committed many excesses; but at length he was driven out of London, and being deserted by all his followers, was killed by a gentleman of the name of Eden, in whose garden he had concealed himself.

These disturbances, as well as the disputes between the king and parliament, were fomented by the duke of York, who at last raised an army, for the purpose, as he pretended, of reforming the government. He was opposed by the duke of Somerset; and a battle took place at St. Albans, in which Somerset was killed, and the king, who was with him, taken prisoner. The duke of York conducted him to London, and treated him with an appearance of respect. The queen continued the contest; and several battles took place, with various successes. At last the queen's forces were defeated at Northampton, by the earl of Warwick, brother to the duchess of York; and the king, who had joined the queen, was again taken prisoner.

The duke of York now openly claimed the crown;

but the parliament, notwithstanding the duke's power, refused to dethrone the king, but declared that the duke of York should be his successor.

The queen persevered in her efforts; and, having raised a considerable force in the north, encountered the duke of York at Wakefield-green, in December, 1460. The duke was killed; and his son, the duke of Rutland, a youth of seventeen, was murdered, in cold blood, by Lord Clifford, in revenge for his father's death, at St. Alban's.

Edward, the duke of York's eldest son, put himself at the head of his party, and became a favourite of the people. He soon obliged Margaret to retire from London; and entering the city amidst general acclamations, was crowned by the title of Edward IV. on the 5th of March, 1461.

Margaret retired to the north, and was joined by such numbers, that she was again at the head of an army of 60,000 men. She was met by Edward and the earl of Warwick at Towton in Yorkshire, on the 29th of March, and a bloody battle took place, in which the queen's army was routed; and, as Edward had ordered no quarter to be given, 40,000 of the Lancastrians were killed in the field or the pursuit. The queen fled to Scotland with her husband; and having obtained some supplies of troops from France, again entered England at the head of 5000 men. But her troops were again totally defeated at Hexham, on the 15th of May. The king remained for some time in concealment, but was discovered, and thrown into the Tower. The queen escaped to Flanders.

Edward, now in possession of the throne, soon disgusted his subjects. He was at once gay, profligate, and cruel, and seemed to have the same pleasure in witnessing a pageant as an execution. He insulted and slighted the earl of Warwick, to whom he was indebted for the crown; and that powerful nobleman, prompted by revenge, turned against him, and headed an extensive party formed to restore king Henry. Warwick went to France, and was reconciled to the queen. They

returned to England; and in a few days were at the head of 60,000 men. Edward was now obliged to fly to Holland: and Henry was released from prison, and once more placed on the throne. His title was confirmed by the parliament; and Warwick obtained, among the people, the name of the *King-maker*.

Edward, however, trusting to his partisans in England, ventured to return. Though at first coldly received, his followers increased, and London, when he appeared before it, opened its gates. Henry was again pulled from the throne; and Warwick's party daily diminished. He therefore found it necessary to bring the contest to the issue of a battle, though with an inferior force. The contending parties met at Barnet, on the 14th of April, 1471; and, after a desperate engagement, in which Edward ordered no quarter to be given, Warwick's troops, with himself and his brother, were cut to pieces.

The queen had just returned from France, where she had been soliciting supplies, when she received the news of Warwick's defeat and death. Her fortitude gave way under so terrible a shock, and she sank senseless on the ground. Recovering herself, she resolved, with her remaining followers, to make another effort, and met Edward's victorious army at Tewkesbury. Her troops were totally defeated. The duke of Somerset, and a number of other men of distinction, were dragged from a church in which they had taken refuge, and beheaded. The queen and her son were brought before Edward, who asked the prince in an insulting manner, how he dared to invade his dominions? The spirited boy replied, "I came to recover my father's kingdom!" on which the brutal tyrant struck him on the face with his gauntlet, and the dukes of Clarence and Gloucester stabbed him with their daggers. Margaret and her husband were thrown into the Tower, were, it is generally believed he was murdered by the duke of Gloucester. Margaret, after remaining five years in the Tower, was ransomed by the king of France.

Edward IV. now kept unmolested possession of the throne. His reign presents no incident worthy of no-

Edward V.

tice. It was a disgusting course of licentiousness and cruelty. He died in 1483, in the twenty-third year of his reign. He married Elizabeth Woodville, Lady Grey, by whom he had two sons, Edward, prince of Wales, and Richard, duke of York, and five daughters.

Edward V. was thirteen years old when he succeeded to the throne; his brother Richard was nine years old. Richard, duke of Gloucester, the late king's brother, was named regent of the kingdom.

No sooner was his brother dead than Richard determined to seize the crown. Having gained over the duke of Buckingham, and some other noblemen to his interest, he resolved to obtain possession of the young king, who was then under the care of his uncle the earl of Rivers. Having privately arrested this nobleman and some of his friends, he conducted the king to London with apparent respect, and the queen was prevailed on to deliver up to him her younger son, the duke of York.

These two young princes were lodged in the Tower; and Richard proceeded to rid himself of those who might hinder the accomplishment of his design. He despatched orders to behead Lord Rivers and his friends, who had been imprisoned in Pontefract Castle; and, on the same day on which this order was executed, Richard summoned a council in the Tower, which was attended, among others, by Lord Hastings, a nobleman who had shown a disposition to oppose his designs. While the council was sitting he pretended he had discovered a plot against his life, ordered several of the members to be arrested, and Lord Hastings to be instantly beheaded, swearing that he would not dine till he had seen his head. Hastings was hurried out to the little green in front of the Tower chapel, and beheaded on a log of wood that lay in the way.

Richard's followers now endeavoured to persuade the people that the king was illegitimate; and the mayor and some of the citizens were prevailed on to offer him the crown. He accepted the offer with pretended unwillingness, and was immediately proclaimed and crowned by the title of Richard III. The two young princes, the king and his brother, were privately murdered in the Tower, by some ruffians employed by Richard. Finding the boys asleep in their chamber, they smothered them with the bed-clothes. The bones of these unhappy youths were discovered in the reign of Charles II., and buried in Wesminister Abbey, where a monument to their memory is now to be seen.

Richard, having owed his crown to the duke of Buckingham, gave him great rewards for his services; but that nobleman did not think them sufficient; and the king having refused to comply with some of his extravagant demands, Buckingham resolved on his destruction. He accordingly entered into communication with Henry Tudor, earl of Richmond, who was considered the only survivor of the house of Lancaster, and agreed to support his claim to the throne. Richmond was the grandson of Catherine, widow of Henry V. and of Owen Tudor.

The king having become suspicious of Buckingham's

Richard III.

designs, ordered his attendance at court, which compelled him to proceed to extremities before his plans were ripe for execution. He raised a large body of Welshmen, and marched against the king; but a great flood in the Severn, which lasted for ten days, dispersed his men, and he was obliged to seek refuge in the house of an old servant, who betrayed him to the king's officers. He was seized, and instantly beheaded at Salisbury.

Richmond having mustered a small force of about 2000 persons, sailed from Normandy and landed at Milford-Haven, in Wales. Several noblemen having joined him, his army increased to 6000. Richard marched against him with a force of double the number; and they met at Bosworth-field, in Leicestershire. Lord Stanley, who commanded a large body of troops in Richard's army, was privately in the interest of Richmond,

who counted on his assistance. He was not disappointed, for no sooner was the battle begun than Stanley suddenly attacked the flank of Richard's army, which could not withstand the shock. Richard, seeing all was lost, rushed into the middle of the enemy, and fell, fighting with the fury of a wild beast. After the battle his body was found, stripped naked among a heap of slain, covered with wounds, the eyes staring, and the face disfigured. It was thrown across a horse, and carried to Leicester, where it was exposed for two days, and then buried. The battle of Bosworth-field was fought on the 23d of August, 1485.

Thus ended the royal line of the Plantagenets, which began with Henry II., and possessed the crown of England for 330 years. During the earlier part of that period, England advanced in commerce and the arts of civilized life. We are informed that, in Edward the Third's reign, there were 30,000 students in the University of Oxford. During the wars between the parties of York and Lancaster every pursuit was abandoned but that of arms, and the people again became fierce and barbarous. The art of printing was introduced into England, in 1471, by the celebrated William Caxton. This important invention became one means, under Providence, of spreading abroad that religious light which led eventually to the Reformation. The writings of Wickliffe and others, exposing the errors and corruptions of the Church of Rome, were widely circulated; and, as men became more enlightened on the subjects of Christian doctrine, they grew weary of a system of superstition and intolerance. A rapid advance both in religious information and general knowledge now commenced, and from this period a corresponding improvement in the state of society took place. All Englishmen have to thank God, not only for the original introduction of Christianity into their land, but also for having been made partakers, in an eminent degree, of the blessings of the Reformation.

The account of Richard III. given in the foregoing pages is that which has been received as history ever

since the reign of Henry VII. A recent work of Mrs. Halsted gives an entirely different aspect to the character of this sovereign and the events of his reign. She shows conclusively that this king has been calumniated by the friends of the Tudor dynasty; that there is no evidence of his having caused the murder of the young princes; that he was really invested with the sovereignty by the unbiassed choice of the nation; that he reigned with justice and magnanimity; that he was popular with all classes of his subjects; and that his fall was caused by the defection of Lord Stanley, who was a traitor in the worst sense of the word.

A ship of the time of Edward IV.

Henry VII.

CHAPTER XII.

Henry VII.—Henry VIII.

From 1485 to 1547.

A few months after his coronation, Henry married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., thus strengthening his claim to the crown by the union of the houses of Lancaster and York.

He was joyfully received by the nation; but, by a long course of civil war, the people had become so restless, that the mere love of change led them to frequent insurrections during his reign. He treated the descendants of the house of York with great severity; and this was very disagreeable to the people, by whom the house of

York had always been more beloved than that of Lancaster. Hence he became unpopular, notwithstanding his wise and vigorous government.

Henry, at the commencement of his reign, imprisoned in the Tower the earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence, and nephew of the late king Richard. A young man named Lambert Simnel, pretending that he was that prince, claimed the crown. Being supported by some of the nobility, he procured a body of foreign troops, with whom he landed in England, but not being joined by the people as he expected, his adherents were routed by the king with great slaughter, and himself taken prisoner. Simnel himself was pardoned, and made a scullion in the king's kitchen; but those who had been concerned in the insurrection, were punished by heavy fines.

In the year 1493 another insurrection broke out, of a similar kind, though of a more formidable extent. A young man, named Perkin Warbeck, made his appearance, pretending that he was the duke of York, the younger son of Edward IV., who, it was said, had escaped from the Tower by the assistance of the men who had been hired to murder him. He strongly resembled the family of Plantagenet, and acted his part so skilfully, that multitudes of persons were deceived. He appeared at the court of the duchess of Burgundy (the sister of Edward IV.) and claimed her protection as her nephew. It is generally believed that the duchess was concerned in this scheme, though some represent her as being herself deceived. She received Warbeck with transports of joy, real or pretended; and treated him with the distinction due to the heir of the English crown. A confederacy began in England in his favour; but it was discovered by the watchfulness of the king; and a number of persons engaged, or suspected of being engaged, in it, were executed.

Warbeck, after making an unsuccessful attempt on the coast of Kent, and another in Ireland, went to Scotland; and so entirely convinced James IV. of his being the duke of York, that he warmly espoused his cause,

gave him in marriage Lady Catherine Douglas, daughter of the earl of Huntley, and invaded England. A treaty of peace, however, was soon concluded: and Warbeck, finding his hopes of assistance from Scotland at an end, put himself at the head of an insurrection, which had broken out in Cornwall, in consequence of a new tax. Being joined by 3000 of the discontented people, he laid siege to Exeter, but fled on the approach of the king's troops. His wife fell into the hands of the king, who pitying her hard fate, treated her kindly, and placed her in the queen's household, with a pension which she enjoyed till her death. Warbeck soon afterwards gave himself up; and his life was spared, though he was kept in custody. Having made his escape he was retaken and committed to the Tower. He now entered into a correspondence with the earl of Warwick, and laid a plan for their joint escape: but, being detected, they were both executed. The earl was beheaded on Tower Hill, and Warbeck hanged at Tyburn.

In the latter part of Henry's reign, his covetous disposition, which increased with his years, led him to many unjust and oppressive acts. He employed two lawyers, Empson and Dudley, who extorted money from the people in every way they could devise. Persons were committed to prison, but never brought to trial; and were glad to purchase their liberty by the payment of heavy sums, which were called *mitigations* or *compositions*. The whole laws which imposed fines were put in action, whether beneficial or hurtful, new or old; an army of spies and informers was kept up in every part of the kingdom; and men's lands and goods were often seized without even the colour of law. By all these means, joined to strict frugality in his expenses, Henry amassed an unusual sum of money in his treasury.

Henry VII. died in 1509, in the twenty-third year of his reign. His eldest son, Arthur, who married Catherine of Arragon, died young. His second son, Henry, succeeded him. Though his character was not amiable, and his public conduct, in his latter years, unjust and covetous, his reign was, on the whole, beneficial to the

nation. He carried the power of the crown to a greater height than it had reached at any time since the granting of the *Magna Charta;* but he exercised it chiefly in establishing a degree of peace and order in the state, to which it had long been unaccustomed. He passed many useful laws; one of which was against the custom of the nobility entertaining great bodies of dependants: a practice deeply rooted, and the cause of great disorders. To such a height had it risen, that the earl of Warwick (the celebrated *king-maker*) is said to have maintained thirty thousand *retainers* on his different estates.

There is a story of Henry's severity against this abuse, which deserves great praise. Being entertained by the earl of Oxford, his favourite general, the earl had his retainers drawn up in splendid array, to grace the departure of his guest. The king, after complimenting the earl on the splendour of his hospitality, observed that this handsome train were, no doubt, his domestic servants. The earl smiled, and confessed the most of them were his retainers, who had come to do him service at that time, when he was honoured with his majesty's presence. The king started back, and said, "By my faith, my lord, I thank you for my good cheer; but I must not allow my laws to be broken in my sight. My attorney must speak to you." Oxford is said to have paid 15,000 marks as a composition for this offence.

Many laws were enacted for the benefit of commerce; but most of them founded in the erroneous principles which then prevailed, were calculated to do evil, instead of good. Among these may be mentioned the law against the exportation of horses, which took away an encouragement to improve the breed; and the regulations fixing the wages of labour and the prices of manufactured articles.

On the whole, notwithstanding the faults of Henry's character, his policy was favourable to the rights and independence of the people, and his reign was of great benefit to the English nation.

Henry VIII.

Henry VIII. ascended the throne at the age of eighteen. He was handsome, and engaging in his manners; and, for some time, much beloved by his subjects. His first remarkable act was the punishment of Empson and Dudley; the next his marriage with Catherine of Arragon, the widow of his brother Arthur.

In 1510 he engaged in a war with France without any reasonable motive; and after an inglorious contest, he concluded a peace in 1514. His arms were more successful against the Scots, who, under their king, James IV., having invaded England, were totally defeated, and the king slain, with the greatest part of his nobility, in the memorable battle of Flodden, on the 9th of September, 1513.

Henry, who had now committed the managment of

affairs to Cardinal Wolsey, began to displease his subjects by his lavish expenditure, and his heavy exactions to supply it. An attempt to levy a large tax, without the consent of parliament, nearly produced a general insurrection, and he was obliged to give it up.

Cardinal Wolsey.

His marriage with Queen Catherine had subsisted for many years; when, affecting to have scruples, on account of its legality, he became desirous to have it dissolved. He applied to the pope for a divorce; but he, unwilling to break with the emperor of Germany, the queen's relation, kept the matter in suspense; and Wolsey seconded this policy. At last, when the king's patience was almost exhausted, it was reported to him, that a young ecclesiastic, of the name of Cranmer, had said, that the king should spend no more time in negotiation with the pope, but should propose to all the universities of Europe, the plain question, "Can a man marry his brother's widow?" The king, delighted with this hint, exclaimed, "The man has got the right sow by the ear." The advice was adopted, and opinions against the legality of the marriage were obtained. The queen

was divorced, and Henry immediately married Anne Boleyn. Cranmer afterwards became archbishop of Canterbury, and enjoyed Henry's confidence during the rest of his life.

Wolsey, whose favour had been declining, was disgraced some time before the queen's divorce. He was ordered to retire to his diocese at York, but was soon afterwards arrested for high treason. On his way to London he was taken ill, and died in Leicester Abbey. In his last words he drew a just and striking portrait of his master: "He is a prince of a most royal carriage, and hath a princely heart; and rather than he will miss or want any part of his will, he will endanger the one half of his kingdom." "Had I but served God," he added, "as diligently as I have served the king, he would not give me over in my gray hairs!"

On being informed of the divorce of Queen Catherine, the pope pronounced a sentence declaring her to be the king's only lawful wife, requiring him to take her again, and threatening him with the censures of the church in case of refusal. This determined Henry to separate wholly from the Church of Rome, of which he had hitherto been a zealous adherent, and had even acquired the title of "Defender of the Faith," in consequence of having written a book against the doctrines of the Reformation. In the year 1534 he was declared, by the parliament, head of the church, and the authority of the pope was abolished in England. In 1538 all the monasteries and nunneries were suppressed, and their estates and revenues taken possession of by the king.

At the beginning of his religious reforms, he had ordered the publication of a translation of the Scriptures; but soon after it was published, he prohibited all except gentlemen and merchants from reading the Scriptures; and even they were only allowed to read, "so that it be done quietly and with good order." The free reading of the Scriptures was found inconsistent with the submission demanded by the king to the different doctrines which he thought proper to adopt. However, the sacred volume was no longer a sealed book to the unlearned,

and from the perusal of it, sound views of Christian doctrine continued to increase.

The king proceeded with indiscriminating fury against both the followers of the Reformation, and the Roman Catholics—the former he condemned, because they denied the truth of doctrines which he professed, and the latter because they refused to admit his supremacy; and he was equally arbitrary in civil as in religious matters. Amongst the victims to his tyranny was the celebrated Sir Thomas More, who, since the disgrace of Wolsey, had been the Lord Chancellor.

The parliament was perfectly submissive to his will: they declared that the king's proclamations should have the same force as the statutes of parliament; an act by which they violated the constitution, and deprived themselves of every means of maintaining their liberties.

In his domestic concerns the conduct of Henry VIII. is without a parallel in history. He soon became weary of Anne Boleyn: and his desire to get rid of her was inflamed by a new passion for Jane Seymour, the daughter of a gentleman of Wiltshire. The gaiety of the queen's manners laid the foundation of a charge of infidelity, on which she was suddenly committed to the Tower, and, after a summary trial, put to death. On the day after the execution the king married Jane Seymour, who probably escaped a more unhappy fate by dying within a year of her marriage, after giving birth to a son.

His next wife was the princess Anne of Cleves. Henry had taken a fancy to her from having seen her portrait; but when she arrived in England, he was so much disappointed in her person and manners, that he almost refused to marry her. Very soon afterwards he induced the parliament to pronounce the marriage void; and Anne retired to Richmond, where she passed the rest of her life in tranquillity.

Before the divorce of Anne of Cleves, Henry had fallen in love with Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whom he immediately married. It was soon discovered that she was a woman of an abandoned cha-

racter; and she was convicted of incontinence, and executed, along with several persons concerned in her guilt.

Henry's last wife was Catharine Parr, the widow of Neville, Lord Latimer. This lady was more than once in great danger, from her inclination to the reformed religion; but her prudence and address saved her, and she retained the king's favour till his death.

Towards the end of his life, Henry became more and more violent and tyrannical. The torments of bodily disease rendered his temper so frightful, that nobody ventured into his presence without trembling. The last objects of his cruelty were the aged duke of Norfolk, who had long served him with fidelity, and the duke's son, the earl of Surrey, a young man of singular accomplishments. On a groundless pretence, these noblemen were arrested. The son was condemned, and beheaded on Tower Hill: and the father's life was saved, the day before that on which he was to have been executed, by the death of the tyrant himself. This event happened on the 14th of June, 1547; in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and thirty-eighth of his reign.

In an act of parliament of this reign, the number of persons in prison for crimes and debts, is stated to have been above 60,000. More than 72,000 criminals were executed during this reign for theft and robbery, which is at the rate of almost 2000 a year. At that time the common people of England were still unacquainted with the arts of industry, and consequently remained idle and vicious: while all manufactures and handicraft trades were exercised by foreigners. So great was the number of foreign artisans in London, that 15,000 Flemings alone were banished from it at once. In one of the king's edicts it is stated that the foreigners starved the natives, and obliged them to have recourse to theft, murder, and other enormities. It is also asserted that the number of foreigners raised the price of grain and bread. He therefore imposed restrictions on the number of foreign artisans: an absurd policy; for, by encouraging and protecting them, he might have excited the English to rival them; and an increased consumption of

corn would have led the people of the country to cultivate their fields, instead of allowing them to lie waste, or at best, in the state of pasture. This would have been more effectual than the laws which were enacted to *compel* the husbandmen to till their ground.

In this reign the principal college in each University was founded, namely, Christ Church, at Oxford, and Trinity, at Cambridge.

A ship of the time of Henry VIII.

CHAPTER XIII.

Edward VI.—Mary.

From 1547 to 1558.

Henry VIII. left three children: Mary, by Catherin of Arragon; Elizabeth, by Anne Boleyn; and Edward by Jane Seymour. By his will he named Edward hei to the crown; and though in the violence of his hatre to their mothers, he had declared his daughters illegiti mate, he appointed them to the succession after their brother. He named a number of executors to the young king; and they on Edward's accession, appointed the duke of Somerset (brother of Jane Seymour, and uncle to the king) protector of the kingdom. Edward, when he succeeded, was nine years of age.

Edward's reign is remarkable for the establishment of the reformed religion. The duke of Somerset had long adopted the doctrines of the reformers; and his first care was to appoint a commission, at the head of which was Archbishop Cranmer, and Ridley, afterwards bishop of London, to draw up a book of offices for the use of the church. In a short time the greatest part of the nation came over to the reformed doctrines and worship; though several distinguished persons still adhered to popery, among whom were Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and the king's sister, the princess Mary.

The protector determined to execute the late king's project of uniting Scotland with England by marriage. He required that the young queen of Scots should marry Edward; and this being refused, he invaded Scotland with a large army. At this time the Reformation had made small progress in Scotland, and the queen-dowager (the widow of James V.) was strongly attached to the Romish religion. Somerset totally defeated the Scottish army at Pinkie, a few miles from Edinburgh, on the

10th of September, 1547; but this battle had no decisive effect. A truce was agreed to, and Somerset returned to England.

This violent manner of bringing about a union only rendered the Scots more averse to it. Even those who were inclined to it did not choose that it should be imposed on them by force of arms; and the earl of Huntley remarked, that "he disliked not the match, but hated the manner of wooing." To put an end to all further attempts of this sort, the young queen of Scots was sent to France, and soon afterwards married the dauphin.

The remainder of this reign was passed in disputes and intrigues among the nobility. The protector's first enemy was his own brother, Lord Seymour, the admiral, a man of great ambition, who had married Catharine Parr, the widow of the late king. His projects against the protector being discovered, he was found guilty of high treason, and executed.

Somerset, elated with his high dignity, forgot his original prudence and moderation. He had first endeavoured to court popularity by appearing to protect the people against the nobility: but latterly he lost the favour of the people by the execution of his brother, the introduction of foreign troops, and the great wealth he had acquired. He thus easily fell a victim to the arts of his enemies, at the head of whom was Dudley, duke of Northumberland, who succeeded in accomplishing his ruin, by means of an accusation of high treason. Being brought to trial, he was acquitted of this crime: but being convicted of a design of murdering Northumberland, he was executed for felony, on Tower Hill, on the 22nd of January, 1552.

On the death of Somerset, the duke of Northumberland assumed the office of protector, and formed a scheme for obtaining the sovereign power. He persuaded the king, whose health was now declining, that his sisters, having been declared illegitimate, had no right to succeed, and that the succession belonged to the marchioness of Dorset, eldest daughter of his father's sister, the queen of France · and the council agreed to a deed,

whereby the princesses Mary and Elizabeth were set aside, and the crown settled on the heirs of the marchioness of Dorset, who had now acquired the title of duchess of Suffolk. The heir on whom the crown was thus settled was the Lady Jane Grey, daughter of the duchess of Suffolk; and Northumberland immediately brought about a marriage between her and Lord Guildford Dudley, his son.

Immediately after this marriage, the king became rapidly worse. His physicians were dismissed by Northumberland's advice, and he was put under the care of an ignorant old woman, who had undertaken to restore him to health. The use of her medicines seemed to increase the violence of his disease; and he expired on the 6th of July, 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age, and seventh of his reign. He is represented as a young prince of a most promising disposition.

Immediately after Edward's death, Northumberland had his daughter-in-law, the Lady Jane Grey, proclaimed queen. This lady, a woman of singular virtue and and talents, had taken no part in the transactions by which she was brought to the throne; and, indeed, had remained in ignorance of them. She received the news of her dignity with equal surprise and grief; but, being obliged to yield to circumstances, she suffered herself to be conveyed to the Tower, where it was then usual for the kings of England to reside for some days after their accession. Learning, however, that the princess Mary, determined to support her claim, was at the head of 40,000 men, she immediately resigned the crown, and retired to her own habitation. Northumberland attempted to quit the kingdom, but was arrested.

Mary now entered London, and took possession of the throne without opposition. The duke of Northumberland, with several of his adherents, were condemned, and executed. Sentence of death was also pronounced against the Lady Jane Grey, and Lord Dudley, her husband, a young man whose virtues and accomplishments resembled her own. This young couple, neither of whom had reached the age of seventeen, were spared

for the time; but they were both executed more than a year afterwards. Their fate excited general pity and indignation.

Mary speedily showed her determination to restore the Romish religion, to which she had steadily adhered. Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and others who had been imprisoned or deposed in the former reign, were set at liberty and restored. A parliament was summoned, which readily concurred in the queen's measures. There still remained so many adherents to the ancient religion, that the queen's influence was sufficient to give them the preference in most of the elections. This parliament by a single vote, repealed every statute of Edward VI., with regard to religion.

To strengthen the cause of the Romanists, Mary's counsellors proposed a marriage between her and Philip II. of Spain. Into this alliance, though highly disagreeable to the nation, the queen entered with the utmost eagerness; and soon afterwards Philip arrived in England, and the marriage took place. During the arrangements for it, violent insurrections arose, which were suppressed with much bloodshed; many persons of distinction were executed; and the prisons were filled with nobility and gentry suspected of being disaffected to the queen.

It is related, as an instance of the spirit with which the English had begun to assert their superiority at sea, that the admiral of England fired at the Spanish fleet, though Philip was on board, because they had not lowered their topsails as a mark of deference to the English navy in the narrow seas. Philip, on his arrival, disappointed Mary by his extreme coldness, and disgusted the nobility and the nation by his reserve and haughtiness. He left England the following year, and never returned. He treated the queen with the utmost neglect; and never wrote to her but when he wanted money, with which she supplied him as often as she could, by means of very oppressive exactions from her subjects.

It was now determined by the queen and her counsellors to complete the restoration of popery, by destroying

those who would not conform to it. A persecution of the Protestants began, which was not more remarkable for the unrelenting cruelty of the persecutors, than for the courage and constancy of the sufferers.

The first who suffered was Rogers, prebendary of St. Paul's, a man eminent for piety and learning. He had a wife whom he tenderly loved, and ten children; yet such was his serenity, that he was awakened from a sound sleep to be led to execution. He had desired to see his wife before he died; but Gardiner, adding insult to cruelty, told him, that being a priest, he could not have a wife. He was burnt in Smithfield. Taylor, the parson of Hadley, was burnt in his own parish; when tied to the stake, he repeated a Psalm in English. One of the guards struck him on the mouth, and desired him to speak Latin; another, in a rage, gave him a blow with a halbert, which happily put an end to his torments.

Many prelates and distinguished clergymen suffered the same fate, under circumstances of equally revolting cruelty. Among these were Hooper, bishop of Gloucester; Ridley, bishop of London; Latimer, bishop of Worcester; and the venerable Archbishop Cranmer. Under the influence of infirmity of mind, brought on by long confinement and severe usage, Cranmer's resolution had given way, and he had subscribed a recantation of his opinions. But this he immediately retracted; and when at the fatal stake, he showed his repentance for his fault by stretching out his right hand, and holding it in the flames till it was consumed, while he exclaimed several times, "This hand hath offended!"

This persecution, which began with persons of station and influence, soon extended to all classes and degrees. Even boys and women were among the victims. During three years it is computed that 277 persons were brought to the stake; among whom were five bishops, twenty-one clergymen, eight gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen, a hundred husbandmen, labourers, and servants, fifty-five women, and four children.

The last remarkable transaction of Mary's reign was

her engaging the nation in a war which her husband was carrying on against France. Its result was the loss of Calais, which had been in the possession of England for above two hundred years. This circumstance occasioned clamorous discontent throughout the kingdom, and afflicted the queen so deeply, that she was heard to say, that when dead, the name of *Calais* would be found engraven on her heart. She did not long survive it; but died in the year 1558, after a reign of between five and six years.

CHAPTER XIV.

ELIZABETH.

FROM 1558 TO 1603.

ELIZABETH succeeded her sister Mary, at the age of twenty-five. Having been disliked, and even hated, by her sister, she had lived in the utmost retirement, and employed herself in diligently cultivating a mind naturally of great strength and capacity. Her character was well known to the nation; and she was received with great joy; a feeling which was heightened by the knowledge that she was attached to the Protestant religion. Mary's persecution had produced the usual effect of totally defeating its object. During the reign of Edward VI., a considerable part of the people had acquiesced in the reformed doctrines, in obedience to the government. During the reign of Mary, the whole nation had become Protestants in spite of persecution.

Elizabeth immediately proceeded to re-establish the Protestant religion. She began by recalling all who were banished, and setting free all who were imprisoned for their religious opinions; and her first parliament passed a series of acts which settled the religion of the the state in the manner in which it has ever since existed.

In the civil government of the kingdom she was assisted by wise counsellors, particularly the lord-keeper Bacon, and Sir William Cecil. She restored the coin, which had been much debased; encouraged agriculture, by allowing a free exportation of corn; promoted trade and navigation, and so much increased the shipping of the kingdom, that she was justly called "the restorer of naval glory, and the queen of the northern seas."

Soon after Elizabeth's accession, her jealousy began to be excited against Mary, the young queen of Scots. That princess, great grand-daughter to Henry VII., pretended to have a right to the English crown, in consequence of Elizabeth having been declared illegitimate; her husband, the dauphin of France, assumed the title of king of England, as being the husband of the queen; and she after his death, seemed disposed to retain the title. Mary, desiring to return to Scotland, demanded a safe passage through England, which Elizabeth refused; and a determined enmity from that time arose between them.

The events of Mary's unhappy life belong to the history of Scotland. When she had been deprived of the crown, and forced to take refuge in England, Elizabeth, prompted by personal hatred, as well as apprehension of the claims of a rival, treated her with a persevering cruelty, which has fixed a deep stain on the memory of the English queen. Though Mary had entered her kingdom as a suppliant for protection, she kept her for eighteen years in confinement, on the pretext that she had been guilty of crimes in her own country, which Elizabeth had no right either to try or punish; and at last procured her condemnation and execution, on the charge that she was concerned in a conspiracy against Elizabeth's life. That a conspiracy had been entered into is undoubted; and that Mary was in some degree aware of it, appears probable. But this does not excuse the cruelty and injustice which, for eighteen years, she had suffered; and her trial and sentence by a tribunal to which she owed no subjection, and for treason, a crime of which she could not have been guilty, she being

no subject of the queen of England, proceeded from Elizabeth's determination to close, by death, her persecution of a hated enemy.

The unfortunate queen of Scots was beheaded at Fotheringay-castle, on the 7th of February, 1587. Elizabeth, on being informed of this event, appeared overwhelmed with grief, and transported with indignation against her ministers, for having carried the sentence into execution without her authority. What was the real state of her mind, it seems impossible to decide. She was a mistress of the art of dissembling; and it is hardly possible to believe that her servants would have ventured to do such a deed without full assurance of her approval. Her conduct, too, after the sentence, indicates a fixed resolve to carry it into execution.

James of Scotland, Queen Mary's son, despatched an ambassador to Elizabeth, beseeching her to spare his mother's life, and threatening her with the consequences of a refusal. But Elizabeth refused to listen to him; and when he begged that the execution might be delayed for a week, answered, "No, not for an hour!" On the other hand, she treated Davison, her secretary, whom she blamed for the execution of the sentence, with great severity;—he was not only imprisoned for a long time, but fined ten thousand pounds, and reduced to beggary. The king of Scotland at first showed the utmost resentment; but his peaceable disposition was easily appeased, and he gradually entered into friendly intercourse with Elizabeth.

Philip of Spain, soon after the death of his wife, Mary, had made proposals of marriage to her sister Elizabeth, and had deeply resented her refusal. Actuated by this feeling, and a desire to support the Romish religion, he determined on the invasion of England. For this purpose he raised an army of 60,000 men, and equipped a fleet of 130 vessels, larger than any that had ever been seen in Europe.

The expected arrival of this fleet, which had been called the Invincible Armada, filled England with terror. The queen, undismayed, mustered the forces of the

kingdom. They were greatly inferior to those of Philip, but derived confidence from the example of the queen. She visited the camp at Tilbury, rode through the ranks, and addressed the soldiers in animating language: "I know," she cried, "that I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England too, and think foul scorn that Parma, or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realms, for which, rather than any dishonour shall grow by me, I myself will take up arms: I myself will be your general, judge, and rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field!"

In the mean time the Armada sailed, but the unwieldy vessels were much damaged by stormy weather before they approached the English coast. They were met by the small but active English fleet, under Effingham, the admiral, who, instead of coming to a close encounter, hovered about them, and cut off many straggling vessels, as they sailed up the Channel. At last the Spaniards came to anchor off Calais, in expectation of being joined by the duke of Parma. Effingham sent eight fire-ships among them, and profiting by the confusion thus caused, attacked, and completely dispersed them, taking or burning twelve ships. The rest were almost entirely destroyed by tempests, and a small remnant only returned to Spain.

The English now, in their turn, made many attacks on the Spanish coast, and took their vessels in several actions. They were led by some of the boldest and ablest seamen that England has ever produced; among whom were Raleigh, Howard, Drake, Cavendish, and Hawkins; and the navy of England then attained that excellence which it has ever since preserved.

Elizabeth, though she possessed all the highest qualities of a king, had a large share of the weaknesses of a woman. She was excessively vain of her person, very open to flattery, and remarkably susceptible of tender feelings towards persons of the other sex. During the earlier part of her reign she had entertained a passion for the earl of Leicester, a man whose only merit was a

handsome person, and very agreeable manners. Her prudence had conquered her inclination to marry him; but he occupied the chief place in her affection till his death.

The merits of the young earl of Essex then engaged her attention. He was handsome, gay, and witty, and of a much more estimable character than Leicester had been. The queen, delighted with his ardent and generous spirit, permitted him to treat her with a degree of freedom which none had ever hazarded before. His youth and inexperience rendered him vain and presumptuous. On one occasion he treated the queen so rudely, that she gave him a box on the ear, which he resented by drawing his sword, and swearing that he would not bear such usage even from her father. Such treatment as this, however, the haughty queen could forgive from him.

A rebellion having broken out in Ireland, Essex went to put it down. But his conduct was so injudicious that he failed in his object. Unable to effect anything against the rebels, he entered into a truce with them, and returned to England, without having applied for permission to do so.

The queen, deeply irritated, ordered him to remain a prisoner in his own house. Finding his efforts to regain her favour ineffectual, he resolved to retire to the country, but first conveyed a message to her, which affords a curious specimen of the manners of the time. He declared that he could never be happy till he again saw those eyes that were wont to shine upon him with such lustre, and that in expectation of that happy moment, he would, like another Nebuchadnezzar, dwell with the beasts of the field, and be wet with the dew of heaven, till she took pity on his sufferings. This piece of romance was so much to the queen's taste that it put an end to her anger. She sent him a kind answer; and, though he was not wholly forgiven, yet it is plain that nothing but his own continued folly prevented his complete restoration to favour.

Essex, presuming on the queen's tenderness, expected

to be immediately placed on his former footing, and was violently enraged at her refusing to restore a grant which she had withdrawn from him. He gave vent to the most indiscreet language, and mingled his bitterness with ridicule of the queen's person. This was reported to the queen, who began to feel the hatred of a slighted woman. Essex, mad with disappointment, now entered into a treasonable conspiracy, and finding it discovered, rushed into the streets, and endeavoured to raise an insurrection among the populace. In this attempt he was seized and carried to the Tower. He was immediately tried, and condemned to death on clear proof of his treason.

After his condemnation the queen's tenderness revived. She had formerly given him a ring, which she desired him to send to her should he ever be in circumstances which required her favour and protection. This ring Essex sent by the countess of Nottingham, who, being his concealed enemy, never delivered it; and Elizabeth, indignant at his obstinacy in refusing to apply for pardon, after many delays gave her consent to his execution.

From this time Elizabeth sank into a settled melancholy, from which she never recovered. For a time she performed the duties of her station from habit, and supported by resentment of what she conceived to have been Essex's ungrateful obstinacy. But the countess of Nottingham, having on her death-bed sent for the queen, and confessed her treachery, Elizabeth's firmness entirely left her. She threw herself on the dying woman, and shook her violently, exclaiming,—"God may forgive you, but I never will!" and, bursting from her, gave herself up to despair. She refused food, and lay for ten days and nights on the ground, supported by cushions. In this state she remained till her end was visibly approaching; and it was only when she was too weak to make resistance that she was laid on her bed. She soon sank into a heavy slumber; and when it had continued some hours, expired without a groan, in the seventieth year of her age, and the forty-fifth of her reign.

Elizabeth, by her wise government, raised England to a high pitch of prosperity and power. She governed, however, in a most arbitrary manner, unrestrained by the parliament, whose privileges she totally disregarded. Though the parliament had the nominal right of imposing taxes, yet Elizabeth obtained supplies of money, without their authority, by exacting loans and contributions (called *benevolences*) from the people, and by selling privileges of exclusive trade. The parliament's power of enacting laws was rendered quite insignificant. The queen expressly forbade them to meddle with matters either belonging to church or state, and openly sent members to prison who dared to disobey this command. She exercised the power of making laws by means of her own proclamations, and these were sometimes at once oppressive and ridiculous. Having taken offence at the smell of woad, she prohibited the cultivation of that useful plant; and being displeased with the long swords and high ruffs then in fashion, she sent about officers to break every sword, and cut down every ruff, that exceeded a certain dimension.

Though the queen restrained extravagance in dress by several laws, yet she herself paid no regard to them. Her vanity made her appear every day in a different habit; and at her death three thousand dresses which she had worn, were found in her wardrobe.

The general wisdom of Elizabeth's government, and the tranquillity which prevailed during her long reign, enabled the nation to advance rapidly in commerce and the arts. Learning was much cultivated, and some of the greatest names in English literature belong to this reign.

James I.

CHAPTER XV.

James I.—Charles I.

From 1603 to 1649.

Margaret, the daughter of Henry VII., who married James IV., being the grandmother of Mary, the mother of James VI. of Scotland, that king was now the heir to the English crown, and Elizabeth, on her death-bed, expressed her wish that he should be her successor. With him began the reign of the family of the Stuarts in England. At the time of his accession he was thirty-seven years of age, and had been for many years king of Scotland.

In the first year of James's reign a conspiracy was discovered, the object of which was to place upon the throne the Lady Arabella Stuart, who was also descended from Henry VII., and, after James, the next heir to the crown. Of this conspiracy little is known; but what renders it memorable is the concern which the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh had in it. He, with several others, was condemned to death: but he was reprieved, and kept for thirteen years in confinement. He was afterwards set at liberty, and employed in an enterprise against the Spaniards in South America. Being unsuccessful, he returned to England, and being again imprisoned, he was beheaded in pursuance of his former sentence. This piece of injustice and cruelty appears to have proceeded from James's desire to be on good terms with the court of Spain, a marriage being then in contemplation between his son Charles, prince of Wales, and the daughter of the king of Spain.

In 1605 the conspiracy so well known by the name of the *Gunpowder Plot* was discovered. The Romanists had formed great expectations from James, both because his mother had been a Romanist, and because he was understood to be attached to that religion. He, however, adhered steadily to the Protestant faith; and several Papists, in their disappointment, formed a plan for the destruction both of the king and the parliament. The leaders were Catesby, a gentleman of good family, and Percy, a descendant of the house of Northumberland, who employed a ruffian named Guy Fawkes. They hired a vault under the parliament-house, as if for the purpose of holding fuel; under which they concealed many barrels of gunpowder, with the intention of blowing up the building while the king was opening the session of parliament.

A few days before its meeting, Lord Monteagle, one of the peers, received a letter from an unknown friend warning him of danger if he attended the parliament. This nobleman laid the letter before the council, who were unable to conjecture what its meaning could be; but the king's sagacity suspected the truth; and it was

resolved to examine the vaults under the building. This was purposely delayed till the night before the execution of the plot; and the officers found Fawkes in the vault, prepared to set fire to the powder. He was seized, and being threatened with torture, made a discovery of the whole conspiracy. Catesby and Percy fled to Warwickshire; where another party, as had been concerted, was already in arms. They were surrounded in a house, where they had collected themselves; and, after a desperate defence, these leaders and several others were killed on the spot; and the rest were condemned and executed.

The intended marriage between the prince of Wales and the princess of Spain was broken off for reasons that are not distinctly known. Charles very soon afterwards married the princess Henrietta, daughter of the king of France.

James married his daughter Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine: this prince being driven out of his dominions by Austria and Spain, James declared war against those powers. Into this measure James entered with reluctance; but the Elector Palatine's misfortunes having arisen from his being a Protestant, the English nation zealously espoused his cause, and loudly exclaimed against the king's want of spirit. An army was sent to the assistance of the elector; but the expedition was ill-contrived and unfortunate. No proper arrangements having been made for the landing of the troops, they were cooped up so long in narrow vessels, that a sickness broke out among them, which carried off a great number, and the remainder returned to England without being landed.

James is said to have been much affected by this misfortune, and died the following year, 1625, in the twenty-second year of his reign. By his queen, Anne of Denmark, he had three children: Henry, who died young; Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine; and Charles, who succeeded him.

James was engaged in a constant succession of disputes with his parliament. He entertained the same

high notion of the power of the crown that Elizabeth did, but wanted the firmness by which she supported it; while on the other hand, the general diffusion of knowledge, and the increasing weight and importance of the commons, enabled them to prevent the king from raising money without their consent, and doing other things in which Elizabeth found no opposition. James continued, however, to insist on the exercise of what he considered his lawful powers; and the continued disputes which thence arose, produced a spirit of party, which broke out with dreadful violence in the succeeding reign.

Charles I.

Charles I. ascended the throne at the age of twenty-five. He had endeared himself to the nation by the uniform excellence of his conduct; but his education had

given him those ideas of the great power of the crown which his father continued to entertain during his whole life, notwithstanding the abatement it had suffered during his reign.

At this time the nation was engaged in the war with Austria and Spain, and Charles requested from his first parliament the supplies necessary for the carrying it on. But, though they knew that all the supplies granted in the last reign had been exhausted, and that Charles was involved in the debts contracted by his father, they granted the trifling sum of 100,000*l.*, which was quite insufficient for the purposes of the government. This proceeding cannot be justified: the war had been entered into with the eager concurrence of the parliament and the nation, and it was now the duty of parliament to enable the king to bring it to an honourable termination. But the parliament, from the very beginning of Charles's reign, showed a disposition to seize every opportunity of opposing his measures and diminishing his power.

Charles dissolved this parliament, and called another, which granted a sum larger than the former, but still insufficient, and accompanied this supply with a demand of the dismissal of his minister, the duke of Buckingham. This the king refused, and dissolved the parliament, after a very violent dispute with them.

The king, thus deprived of his supplies, determined to raise money, as former kings had done, without the consent of parliament. He exacted loans from his subjects, and levied various taxes on his own authority. Of these, the one which caused the greatest discontent was the *ship-money*, raised for the support of the navy.

In this situation Charles engaged in a war with France, for which there appears no better ground than the indulgence of a private quarrel between his favourite Buckingham, and Cardinal Richelieu, the prime minister of France. An expedition was sent against France under Buckingham's command, but he made a disgraceful failure, which increased the general discontent.

Charles now called a third parliament, who granted him a considerable sum, but they coupled this with a

demand that the king should acknowledge that the crown had no right to impose taxes without their consent, imprison the subjects at pleasure, or put them under martial law. These demands were made in what is called the *Petition of Rights*, and Charles, after long delay, found himself under the necessity of giving his consent to it. This success encouraged the parliament to make further demands, till the king at last took the resolution of dissolving it, which he did on the 10th of March, 1629, and the kingdom remained for eleven years without a parliament.

The duke of Buckingham being now dead, Charles took as his counsellors the earl of Strafford, and Laud, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury. He made peace with France and Spain, and endeavoured to govern without the aid of parliament, but when this became apparent, it further inflamed the growing discontents.

Charles now exercised to a greater extent than ever, the power which he had renounced by granting the Petition of Right. He exacted the ship-money, and other taxes, in a severe manner, and laid on new impositions.

A religious sect, called the *Puritans*, had been gradually acquiring considerable influence. They were violently opposed to all religious forms and ceremonies, as belonging to the Church of Rome. Archbishop Laud insisted on a strict adherence to the rites of the Church of England, and so rigorously restrained the Puritans that they began to go in great numbers to America, till they were stopped by order of government. Amongst those who were thus detained, after they had embarked, were John Hampden, who had rendered himself conspicuous by his resistance to the taxes imposed by the king, and Oliver Cromwell, who rose to the head of the government.

While the discontents of the nation seemed to threaten open rebellion, Charles made matters worse by endeavouring to introduce into Scotland a religious establishment similar to that of England. In this attempt, after five years of contention and bloodshed, he entirely

failed, and his resources being exhausted, he found himself under the necessity of calling another parliament.

This parliament met in 1640, but, as it refused any supplies, unless the king granted a redress of grievances, it was immediately dissolved. The king still continued to equip an army against the Scots; but they, with a larger army, advanced into England, and obliged the English to retreat. In this situation Charles once more summoned a parliament, which was his last. This memorable parliament met on the 3d of November, 1640. Instead of granting supplies, the House of Commons determined to impeach the earl of Strafford for high treason. This nobleman was tried before the House of Lords. The substance of the charge against him was, that he had been guilty of several exactions in Ireland, and had attempted to extend the king's authority. These accusations the Commons entirely failed to prove; but his condemnation was resolved upon, however unjust. He was found guilty, and executed in 1641.

Soon after the fate of Strafford, Archbishop Laud was imprisoned on a similar charge of high treason. He was detained in prison till the year 1645, when he was condemned and executed. The charges against him were unsupported by even a shadow of proof; but, by that time, it was a sufficient crime to be a loyal subject of the king, and a zealous supporter of the Church of England. The conduct of this venerable prelate, during his trial, and in his last moments, was worthy of the exalted character he had sustained throughout his life.

At the same time that the king consented to sign the death-warrant of Strafford, he gave his assent to a bill, which declared that the parliament should not be dissolved, prorogued, or adjourned, without its own consent; thus depriving himself of the only remaining control he had over them. It was now evident that the House of Commons had determined to overthrow the royal authority. Its majority consisted of Puritans, who demanded the destruction of the Church, and of avowed republicans. Every art was made use of to excite the multitude against the members of the House of Lords, and

especially the Bishops; who, finding themselves in great danger from the violence of the populace, absented themselves altogether from the House.

Matters at length came to extremities; the king, in 1642, left London and retired to York; and both sides prepared for war. The king was joined by the nobility and the bulk of the gentry, and found himself at the head of a considerable force: the city of London and most of the great towns sided with the parliament; and the nation was divided into two great parties, distinguished by the names of the *Cavaliers* and the *Roundheads*.

The first encounter between the armies of the king and parliament was at Edgehill, on the 23d of October, 1642. The king's troops, under prince Rupert, son of the Elector Palatine, at first gained some advantage, but he was unable to follow it up; and the armies separated, after a battle in which 5000 men were left on the field. The first two campaigns were favourable to the king; but the royalists suffered a total defeat at Marston Moor, in 1644. In this battle, the military talents of Oliver Cromwell were first brought into notice. During the winter of that year some attempts were made to enter into a treaty; but the parties being unable to agree, their armies took the field in the spring; and the royalist cause received its final blow at the battle of Naseby, on the 14th of June, 1645. The victory was achieved by the courage and conduct of Cromwell. The king was with difficulty forced off the field by his attendants, leaving it covered with his slain soldiers, and five thousand prisoners in the hands of the enemy. The army of the parliament was commanded by General Fairfax; but, from this time, the whole power was in the hands of Cromwell.

The king fled to Oxford, and shut himself within the fortifications of that place during the winter. He then resolved to demand the protection of the Scottish army, which had come to the assistance of the parliament, and was then besieging Newark. Charles's confidence in their loyalty was misplaced; for they agreed to deliver

him up, on receiving a sum of money as the arrears of pay due to them. The king was confined in Holdenby Castle in Northamptonshire; and the parliament, now that the war was over, wished to disband the army. But Cromwell had other views. The army consisted almost entirely of the *Independents*, the most fanatical sect; and, by their means, he determined to take the government out of the hands of the parliament. He ordered a body of armed men to carry off the king, and to convey him to the head-quarters of the army: whence he was removed to Hampton-Court.

The parliament was seized with dismay when it heard of this violent proceeding, and attempted some resistance. But Cromwell, marching to London with the army, soon brought it to submission. The king was now treated in such a manner, that he felt in immediate danger of his life. He left Hampton-Court secretly, with an intention of escaping from the kingdom; but he was seized on the coast of Hampshire, and closely imprisoned in Carisbrook Castle, in the Isle of Wight.

Meanwhile, the parliament made another effort to resist the tyranny of Cromwell and the army, and even attempted to conclude a treaty which had been begun by the king. But Cromwell put an end to their existence by a decisive act. Colonel Pride, at the head of an armed force, surrounded the house, and excluded all the members but about sixty of the most furious *Independents*.

It only remained to dispose of the king; and his death was speedily resolved upon. To accomplish this wickedness, a vote was passed, declaring it treason for a king to levy war against his parliament; and the king was then brought to trial, under this law, for acts committed before it was in existence. The House of Commons required the concurrence of the House of Lords in this gross injustice; but that body unanimously refused it; and the Commons then voted that the consent of the House of Lords was unnecessary.

A court, consisting chiefly of the officers of the army, was appointed by the House of Commons to try the king,

Being brought before this court on three several days, he refused to acknowledge their right to sit in judgment on him. On the fourth day, having examined some witnesses to prove that he had been in arms against the parliament, they condemned him to death. While conveyed to and from this infamous court, he was grossly insulted by the soldiers and rabble, one of whom spat in his face. "Poor souls!" he calmly said, "they would treat their own generals in the same way for sixpence." A soldier, moved by pity, implored a blessing on him, for which he was struck down by his officer. The king observed that the punishment exceeded the offence.

On January 30, 1649, he was beheaded on a scaffold, in front of the palace at Whitehall. His deportment in his last moments was full of dignity, mildness, and piety.

CHAPTER XVI.

The Commonwealth.

From 1649 to 1660.

The first measure of the House of Commons, after the execution of the king, was to abolish the House of Lords, as useless and dangerous; and all public acts were ordered to run in the names of the "Keepers of the liberties of England."

The Scots, though they had assisted the parliament against the king, did not desire the destruction of the crown. They therefore acknowledged Charles, the eldest son of their late king; who consequently repaired to Scotland. Cromwell entered Scotland with an army, and defeated the Scottish troops under General Lesley, at Dunbar, with great slaughter. Charles now put himself at the head of the remains of the army, which was joined by many royalists, and took the bold resolution of marching into England. But Cromwell followed him

from Scotland; and attacked him at Worcester. The whole Scottish army were either killed or made prisoners, and the king fled from the field.

In attempting to escape from the kingdom, Charles met with singular and romantic adventures. He wandered about the country for six weeks in different disguises. On one occasion, he was obliged to pass a day and a night among the branches of an oak, where he heard the voices of the soldiers in pursuit of him. He received many proofs of attachment from the royalists, who sheltered him in their houses, till he found means to sail from the coast of Sussex in a small vessel, which carried him to France.

Cromwell returned in triumph to London. He immediately got an act passed abolishing royalty in Scotland, and annexing that country, as a conquered province, to England. War was then declared against the Dutch, in consequence of the ambassador from the parliament to Holland having been murdered by some of the royalist party there. During this war several great engagements at sea took place between the English admiral, Blake, and the Dutch admiral, Van Tromp; and at last the Dutch, humbled by repeated defeats, sued for peace.

Feeling his power sufficiently established, Cromwell determined to get rid of the parliament altogether. He appeared in the house, at the head of an armed force, and raised a dispute with them, in the midst of which, after addressing the members in language of the grossest abuse, he turned them out, and ordered the doors to be locked.

In place of this parliament, Cromwell chose a new one, consisting of one hundred and forty-four persons, picked from the lowest and most fanatical of the people. But their proceedings were so absurd that he himself was ashamed of them. He dismissed them also; and assuming the title of Protector, became, in effect, the absolute king of Great Britain. In this character he showed great vigour and capacity. After compelling the Dutch to sue for peace, he entered into a league with France against Spain, whose power he effectually

humbled. At home he exercised a military government. In order to levy money, the country was divided into districts, each under one of his major-generals; and all the property was at their disposal.

The nation at last became clamorous for a parliament; and he resolved to give them one; but took care that it should consist of persons who would not give him any trouble. To make sure of this, he had guards placed at the door, and no member was admitted who had not a warrant from his council. It is understood that his principal design in calling this parliament was that they should offer him the crown. However, when offered, he refused it; probably, because he found that some of his chief supporters were averse to his accepting it.

Cromwell's latter days were miserable. He had disappointed the hopes of every party, and his government was detested by all. His own family reprobated his conduct; and his favourite daughter, on her death-bed, upbraided him with his crimes. Conspiracies were formed against him; and a book was published, entitled, "Killing no murder," to show that to kill him would be an act of virtue. Cromwell read this book, and is said never to have smiled afterwards. He was under perpetual fear of his life. He wore armour under his clothes, and never slept above two or three nights in the same chamber. His countenance became gloomy and haggard; and his eyes betrayed suspicion and alarm on the approach of every stranger. His frame could not long support a life of such wretchedness; and he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in his fifty-ninth year; a memorable example of the bitter fruits of criminal ambition. His usurpation lasted nine years.

On Cromwell's death, his son Richard was proclaimed Protector. He was mild, easy, and void of ambition; and finding that a strong party against him was formed among the republican officers, he resigned his office, and lived for many years as a country gentleman.

The republican officers now attempted to govern by means of the *Rump Parliament*, as it was called, which had been dismissed by Cromwell. This parliament was

again called together; but as it began to set itself in opposition to the army, it was dissolved by General Lambert, who was at the head of the troops. A military government was established: and the principal offices were bestowed on Fleetwood, a zealous republican, who had married Cromwell's daughter, Lambert, and Monk, who was then governor of Scotland.

General Monk now resolved to restore the royal family. He entered into correspondence with the king, and marched into England. Lambert set forward to oppose him; but, being deserted by his soldiers, he was arrested by the parliament. On reaching London, Monk called together the surviving members of the House of Commons, who had been expelled by Colonel Pride, in 1648. They met accordingly, and having issued orders to assemble a new parliament, they dissolved themselves.

The new parliament met on the 25th of April, 1660. Monk immediately proposed the restoration of the king, which was unanimously agreed to. The proposal was received by the nation with the utmost joy. The peers reassembled; Charles was proclaimed, and entered London on the 29th of May, 1660, amidst general acclamations.

So ended the Commonwealth; a period, during which, if England was powerful abroad, she was unhappy at home. A gloomy fanaticism overspread the land; literature and the fine arts were abandoned; and the most innocent recreations were forbidden. Under the name of a republic, too, the nation groaned under a government equally rigorous with that of the most absolute monarchs. The people, therefore, hailed the restoration of monarchy, as the termination of the reign of fanatics and tyrants.

CHAPTER XVII.

Charles II.—James II.

From 1660 to 1689.

Charles created Monk, to whom he owed his restoration, duke of Albemarle; and chose the earl of Clarendon for his prime minister. Proceedings were then commenced against the persons concerned in the late king's death, some of the principal of whom were executed: and the bodies of Cromwell and several others who were dead, were taken from their graves, and hung upon gibbets. Among so many criminals, however, the number who suffered was very small.

But if Charles was not eager to punish his enemies, neither was he so to reward his friends. Numbers, who had lost everything in his service, suffered total neglect. His lenity, as well as his ingratitude, proceeded from the carelessness of his temper; in the midst of gaiety and licentiousness, he entirely neglected the duties of his station. The country followed the example of the court; and strict severity of manners was all at once changed to looseness and profligacy.

In 1664, Charles declared war against Holland; a measure to which he seems to have been prompted by his desire to get into his hands, to supply his prodigality, the money that would be raised for carrying on that war. It was remarkable for a number of great sea-fights between the English and Dutch fleets, in which, on the whole, neither party had any decided advantage; though England suffered the humiliation of the Dutch fleet sailing up the Thames, and retiring in safety, after burning three men-of-war in the river. This disgrace happening in an unnecessary war, excited violent indignation among the people: and the peace which followed was not concluded on terms calculated to appease the general discontent.

During these transactions, a great plague broke out in London, which destroyed above 100,000 of the inhabitants. This calamity was followed by a dreadful fire, which broke out on September 2d, 1665. It raged for three days, and laid a considerable part of the city in ashes. Hardly any lives were lost; but thousands were reduced to beggary by the loss of all that belonged to them. A high column called the *Monument*, was erected near the spot where the fire broke out.

The discontents of the kingdom were much increased by the king's known attachment to Popery, and by the circumstance of his brother the duke of York, who was heir to the crown, openly professing that religion. Great fears were entertained for the safety of the Protestant religion; and these were heightened by the arts of designing men. In 1678, information of a pretended plot to establish Popery was given by Dr. Titus Oates, a man of notorious character; and, in consequence of his false testimony, a great number of persons of all ranks were brought to the scaffold.

In 1679, the parliament, which had set for seventeen years, was dissolved, and a new one called. The king's designs, both to restore Popery and to extend his own power, were now generally understood. To prevent the first, a bill for excluding the duke of York, as being a Papist, from the succession, was passed by the Commons; and to counteract the latter, several statutes were passed, particularly the important *Habeas Corpus* Act, by which the subjects are secured against imprisonment without trial. These proceedings were so disagreeable to the king, that he dissolved the parliament; and finding the next equally intractable, he dissolved it also, with a resolution never to call another.

About the year 1683, a combination was formed by a number of distinguished persons, to raise an insurrection against the king; but they appear to have differed widely in their objects. The duke of Monmouth, a natural son of the king, aspired to the crown; Lord Russell proposed the exclusion of the duke of York, and a redress of grievances; while Algernon Sydney wished to re-

James II.

store the republic. At the same time a plot was entered into by a set of inferior persons to assassinate the king; it was called the *Rye-house Plot* from the place where they intended to execute their purpose. It was discovered; and Lord Russell, and Sydney, being accused of being concerned in it, were condemned and executed, though there was no legal proof of their guilt.

The last remarkable transaction of Charles's reign was the marriage of the Lady Anne, daughter of his brother, the duke of York, to Prince George, brother to the king of Denmark. The king died on the 6th of February, 1685, in the 25th year of his reign. Having no legitimate children, he was succeeded by the duke of York.

James II. was twice married. His first wife, who died before he succeeded to the throne, was Anne Hyde, the daughter of the celebrated earl of Clarendon; his

second, Marie of Este, daughter to the duke of Modena, became his queen.

James began his reign by going openly, and in royal state, to mass; and showed, from the commencement, his intention to restore Popery. The discontent caused by this conduct, encouraged the duke of Monmouth (who had escaped from England when his former designs were discovered,) to make another attempt on the crown. Having landed in England with only 100 followers, he was in a few days at the head of 6000 men. He was encountered by the king's troops at Bridgwater, and totally defeated. Escaping from the field, he wandered for some days about the country in a destitute state; and at last was discovered, concealed in a ditch, and almost exhausted with fatigue and hunger. He was carried to London, and immediately condemned and executed. His followers were punished with dreadful severity; a number were murdered in cold blood after the battle; and about 250 persons were executed by order of the notorious Judge Jefferies, who was sent to try the prisoners; for which service he was made Lord Chancellor.

James now openly attempted to establish Popery and arbitrary power. Finding the parliament an obstacle to his designs, he dismissed it, and never called another. He then promoted Papists to the highest offices in the state; sent an ambassador to Rome; filled the official situations in the universities of Oxford and Cambridge with Roman Catholics; and seven of the bishops having remonstrated against these proceedings, he ordered them to be imprisoned in the Tower, and prosecuted for sedition. His power, however, was not sufficient to prevent their being acquitted. The acclamations caused by this event, were so loud, that they reached the ears of the king, who asked what was the meaning of the noise. Some one said it was nothing but the soldiers shouting for the delivery of the bishops. "Call you that nothing?" the king exclaimed in a rage; "but so much the worse for them." Immediately afterwards he dismissed two of the judges, whom he understood to have been favourable to the bishops.

In these circumstances, William of Nassau, the son of William, prince of Orange, and of Mary, eldest daughter of Charles I., conceived the design of acquiring the English crown. Besides being thus closely allied to the reigning family by blood, he had married the princess Mary, James's daughter. He received invitations from great numbers of the most considerable persons in the kingdom; and everything was prepared for his landing in England before James was aware of his danger, who on learning it, attempted to make concessions by restoring many persons to the places of which he had deprived them; but it was now too late. On the 5th of November, 1688, William landed in Torbay, at the head of 14,000 men. In a few days the gentry of the western counties flocked to his standard; and all England declared for the prince of Orange.

James made no resistance; he only attempted to escape from the kingdom, and left his palace in disguise. He was discovered at Feversham, and, after being grossly insulted, brought back to London, where, as if to show the vanity of popular applause, the same multitude, who, a few hours before, were employed in maltreating his adherents, now welcomed him with acclamations, and every mark of affection. He was ordered by William to retire to Rochester; and was allowed without molestation to embark for France.

On the 22nd of January, 1689, the parliament met; when a vote was passed, that King James, by endeavouring to subvert the constitution, had abdicated the throne, which was thereby vacant. It was then agreed that the prince and princess of Orange should reign jointly, and the succession to the crown, in the event of their having no issue, was settled on the Princess Anne, the daughter of James II., and wife of Prince George of Denmark, and her children. Mary had barely the title; the power being declared to belong exclusively to William.

William III.

CHAPTER XVIII.

William III.

From 1689 to 1702.

At the same time that parliament conferred the crown upon the prince of Orange, they required his assent to a declaration, called the *Bill of Rights*, by which the power of the crown and the rights of the subject were fixed. The levying of money and other acts of power, without the consent of parliament were declared unlawful; and the freedom of election, the right

of petitioning the sovereign, with other privileges, were asserted. It was provided that excessive bail should not be required, excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted: and that parliament should be frequently assembled.

Soon afterwards the crown of Scotland was settled upon William by the general voice of the nation. In the Highlands, however, several of the chieftains refused to submit to William's government; among whom was Macdonald of Glencoe. William proclaimed an indemnity to all who should take the oath of allegiance to him by a certain day; denouncing military execution against those who should fail to do so. Macdonald, intimidated by this proclamation, resolved to submit, and repaired to Fort William before the expiration of the period, where he tendered the oath to the governor of that fortress. He declined to administer it, not being a civil magistrate; and Macdonald immediately set out for Inverary; but from the ground being covered with snow, and the roads almost impassable, he arrived one day after the prescribed time had elapsed. The sheriff, in consideration of Macdonald's disappointment at Fort William, administered the oath, and Macdonald returned home in full assurance of safety.

The king, however, in ignorance of Macdonald's submission, issued a warrant for military execution against him and his family and dependants. This order, signed with the king's own hand, was transmitted to Scotland; and injunctions were given to the commander of the troops in that kingdom to put the whole inhabitants of the valley of Glencoe to the sword. A scene of horror ensued, which is hardly credible in a Christian and civilized country. Captain Campbell, of Glenlyon, marched into Glencoe with a party of soldiers; and, after spending fifteen days in apparent cordiality with Macdonald, by whom they were hospitably received, this party of ruffians suddenly attacked their host and his unoffending people, and put them to death,—killing even children who clung about their knees imploring mercy. Macdonald himself was shot in the arms of his wife, who

died next day in a state of distraction. All the houses were burnt; the cattle and effects were carried off; and many women and children, left naked and destitute amidst the inclemency of winter, perished from cold and hunger.

This shocking transaction excited general horror and indignation. The king dismissed his Scottish minister, Stair, but as no punishment was inflicted on those who had made such an infamous use of his authority, the Highlanders were filled with the most implacable hatred to the king's person and government.

In Ireland, however, the majority of the people, being Papists, still adhered to James, who, having obtained some assistance from the king of France, resolved to maintain his pretensions. He landed in Ireland at the head of a small force, and was soon joined by immense numbers of the lower classes. The Protestants assembled in the neighbourhood of Londonderry, and maintained that place against James's troops with determined resolution. When reduced to extremities by famine, they were relieved by a supply of provisions from England; on which James was obliged to raise the siege.

In 1689, William sent a large body of troops to the assistance of the Protestants; and the following year he arrived in person. On the 1st of July, 1690, he attacked James's army on the banks of the river Boyne, near Dundalk, and gained a complete victory. James fled to Dublin, and embarked for France, leaving his followers to shift for themselves. They still resolved to hold out; and made so brave a stand in defence of Limerick, that they were allowed to surrender on honourable terms. About 14,000 of them entered into the service of France, and were formed into a corps, which distinguished itself for a hundred years afterwards, under the name of the *Irish Brigade*. In 1692, the French king made another attempt to restore James, by an invasion of England, but the fleet prepared for this purpose was completely defeated by the English and Dutch fleets, at the memorable battle of La Hogue.

The war with France continued till the year 1697,

when it was put an end to by the peace of Ryswick. The expenses of this war could not be provided by the taxes; and parliament authorized money to be borrowed: thus laying the foundation of the *National Debt* of Great Britain.

Towards the end of William's reign, a settlement of the succession became necessary. As he had no children, the heirs to the crown, under the settlement made at his accession, were the Princess Anne of Denmark, and her only son, the duke of Gloucester; but this young prince having died, it became requisite to provide against a vacancy of the throne. The next person of the ancient royal blood, who was not disabled by professing the Romish religion, was the Princess Sophia, the grand-daughter of James I., (being daughter of the Electress Palatine, afterwards queen of Bohemia,) who had married the elector of Hanover. An act was therefore passed in 1701, called the *Act of Settlement*, whereby, on the death of William and Anne without issue, the crown was settled on the Electress Sophia and her descendants, being Protestants.

William died in consequence of a fall from his horse, on the 8th of March, 1702, having reigned thirteen years, and was succeeded by Anne.

CHAPTER XIX.

ANNE.

FROM 1702 TO 1714.

THE first important measure of Queen Anne's government was a declaration of war against France. The reasons assigned for this step were, the necessity of restraining the power of France, which was becoming dangerous to the safety of Europe, together with several alleged aggressions on the part of Louis XIV., and his

having acknowledged the title of the pretender, by which name the adherents of Queen Anne designated the son of James II. A war founded on such reasons, naturally met with keen opposition; but it was resolved on, in a great degree through the influence of the duke of Marlborough. The Dutch and Germans declared war against France at the same time.

The duke of Marlborough was first appointed general of the English forces, and afterwards commander-in-chief of the allied army. In 1702, a contest began, which was carried on in Flanders and Germany for ten years, and in which Marlborough raised his military fame to the highest pitch.

The first great blow given to the French monarch was at the celebrated battle of Blenheim, in 1704, between the French under Marshal Tallard, and the allies, under Marlborough and Prince Eugene. The French met with a terrible defeat: and a country of one hundred leagues in extent fell into the hands of the conquerors. In 1706, Marlborough defeated Marshal Villeroy, at Ramailles; and the whole country of Brabant fell into his power. In 1708, the victory of Oudernade threw almost the whole of Flanders into the hands of the allies. The following year was remarkable for the bloody battle of Malplaquet, and the surrender of the town of Mons. Marlborough's last campaign, in 1711, opened a passage into the heart of France; and in another season, had the war been prosecuted in the same manner, the allies might have been masters of Paris.

But while Marlborough was pursuing a career of victory abroad, his fortunes underwent an entire change at home. For some time, the people of England were elated with success, and eager for conquest; but the burdens of the war began to press upon them: the British arms were less fortunate in other quarters; and they wished for the end of a war from which no solid good could be expected. Hence the popularity of Marlborough gradually decayed.

It was in this reign that the disputes between the two great parties known by the names of *Whigs* and *Tories*

began to have a constant influence on the measures of government; though the parties and their names had existed for a considerable time. These names were, at first, cant terms of contempt bestowed upon each other by the parties which divided the kingdom in the reign of Charles II., but they gradually lost their offensive significations. The name of *Tory* came to be applied (by themselves as well as others) to those who especially desired to support the powers of the crown, and the establishment of the national church: while the name of *Whig* was given to those who called for the extension of popular freedom both in the state and in the church. The Whigs accuse the Tories of wishing to exalt the power of the crown at the expense of the just rights and privileges of the people; while the Tories affirm that the principles of the Whigs are inconsistent with the preservation of the established government and religion of the state.

Queen Anne began her reign with a Whig ministry, and the duke of Marlborough attached himself to that party. As the war became disagreeable to the nation, the party who had caused it became more and more unpopular, and the Tories began to prevail throughout the kingdom. The duke of Marlborough was accused of availing himself of the opportunities afforded by his situation of amassing an enormous private fortune; and the duchess, who had long been the queen's chief favourite, disgusted her by her haughty temper.

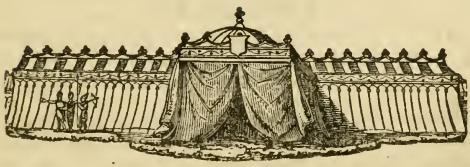
Under these circumstances, the duke returned from Flanders, in 1711. He had no sooner arrived than he was accused of having taken a large bribe from a Jew, who had contracted to supply the army with bread, and was dismissed by the queen from all his employments. She had, a short time before, dismissed all her other Whig ministers, and bestowed her confidence on Harley, who was made earl of Oxford, and St. John, Lord Bolingbroke.

The new ministry resolved to bring about a peace; and, after long negotiations, the famous treaty of Utrecht was concluded in 1713.

The union between England and Scotland took place in this reign. Since the accession of James I., these nations had been under one sovereign, but remained separate and independent of each other, in all other respects. By the treaty of the Union, which was concluded in 1707, England and Scotland were formed into the United Kingdom of Great Britain, with one parliament; but Scotland retained her own laws, and her own form of church government. This treaty met with violent opposition, and continued for a time very unpopular among the people of Scotland; but their eyes have long since been opened to its great and permanent benefits.

The remainder of Queen Anne's reign was spent in disputes between the Whig and Tory parties upon subjects which have now lost their importance. The violence of these disputes, however embittered the queen's life, and appears to have shortened her days. She died on the 30th of July, 1714, in the forty-ninth year of her age, and thirteenth of her reign.

Queen Anne was not remarkable for capacity or firmness; but her disposition was amiable, and her conduct exemplary in all the relations of private life. She was the last sovereign of the house of Stuart.



George I.

CHAPTER XX.

George I.

From 1714 to 1727.

George, elector of Hanover, son of the elector of Brunswick and the Electress Sophia, now succeeded in virtue of the Act of Settlement. He was fifty-four years of age when he came to the throne.

The king immediately bestowed his whole favour on the Whig party. The ministers of the late queen were dismissed, and all the situations under government filled by Whigs.

When parliament met, the earl of Oxford was impeached upon various charges, relating chiefly to the treaty of Utrecht. He was imprisoned in the Tower; and the duke of Ormond and Lord Bolingbroke having left the kingdom, their names were erased from the peerage, and their estates forfeited to the crown. After remaining in prison for two years, Lord Oxford was brought to trial; but the Commons finding they could make nothing of the charges against him, failed to appear as prosecutors, and he was set at liberty.

These violent proceedings excited great discontent among the people, who were generally inclined to the Tories. There were many people in England, and a still larger proportion of the Scots, attached to the Stuart family.

In 1715 a rebellion broke out in Scotland, headed by the earl of Mar, who, assembling his vassals, proclaimed Prince James, son of James II., king of Scotland. Some assistance arrived from France; and the earl soon found himself at the head of 10,000 men. The duke of Argyle, commander-in-chief of the forces in Scotland, advanced against the earl of Mar with an army of only 3500 men; and a battle took place near Dumblane. The rebels made so furious a charge against the left wing of the royal army, that they routed it; and the commander, flying to Stirling, reported that the rebels were victorious. In the meantime, the duke of Argyle, who commanded in person on the right, defeated the left wing of the rebel army, and pursued them off the field; but when he returned, he found the victorious division of the enemy waiting to receive him. Both armies drew off, and the result of this singular battle enabled both parties to claim the victory; but all its advantages belonged to the duke of Argyle; for the effect of this check was, that most of the Highlanders who had joined the earl of Mar returned home.

While these transactions took place in Scotland, the rebellion also broke out in England, headed by the earl of Derwentwater, and some other noblemen and gentlemen. They advanced from the northern border of the

kingdom to Preston in Lancashire, where they were met and surrounded by so large a body of the royal forces, that they were obliged to surrender.

After the Pretender's friends in Britain had thus been defeated, he himself arrived in Scotland, attended only by six gentlemen. The earl of Mar joined him, and he was proclaimed king, expecting that the people would still rise in his favour. But in this he was disappointed, and, finding his affairs desperate, returned to France.

The rebels were treated with great severity. The earls of Derwentwater and Kenmuir, a number of gentlemen and persons of inferior rank, were executed; and above one thousand persons were transported to North America. Immediately after the suppression of this rebellion, an act was passed, which still remains in force, extending the duration of parliament from three to seven years.

The year 1720 is memorable on account of the *South Sea Scheme*. Ever since the Revolution, it had become the custom of government, in place of raising sufficient money for the public expenses every year by means of the taxes, to borrow money from merchants or trading companies. From one of these, the company which traded to the South Seas, the government had borrowed large sums; and this company made a proposal that they should pay off all the debts due to other parties, and thus become the only creditors of the nation. The government was to have the advantage of paying a lower rate of interest than they had done before; and the company was to be empowered to raise the money necessary for buying up the debts of the nation by opening a subscription to a scheme for carrying on a trade to the South Seas, of the profit of which the most extravagant ideas were entertained. A general eagerness to engage in this speculation seized the public; the people came forward in crowds to subscribe, and numbers ventured all they had. In a short time the desire to obtain shares in the concern was such, that people obtained ten times the sum they had subscribed, on agreeing to part with their shares. In a few months, however, it was found

that it was all a delusion. Thousands of families were reduced to beggary, and the trade of the country suffered a shock from which it did not for a considerable time recover.

In 1726, a war broke out with Spain, and an expedition, under Admiral Hosier, was sent to South America, to intercept the ships employed in conveying gold to Spain; but it entirely failed. The Spaniards also failed in an attempt to take Gibraltar; and a peace was soon afterwards concluded.

In 1727, the king set out on a visit to Hanover: but was taken ill, and died in his carriage, near Osnaburg, on the 11th of June, 1727, in the sixty-eight year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign. He was married to the Princess Sophia of Zell, by whom he had the prince who succeeded him, and a daughter, who married Frederic William, king of Prussia.

CHAPTER XXI.

GEORGE II.

FROM 1727 TO 1760.

GEORGE II. came to the throne at the age of forty-four. He was married to the Princess Caroline of Anspach, and at this period, his eldest son, Frederick, prince of Wales, was twenty years of age. The queen possessed great beauty, with a strong understanding, and took a considerable share in the affairs of government. She died in 1737.

Sir Robert Walpole, who, in the former reign, had been a principal leader of the Whig party, became the king's chief minister. The two great parties in the state now changed their names, and were called the *court* and *country* parties. The court party supported the measures of Walpole's administration; the country

party was in opposition. The most frequent subjects of dispute between them, during this reign, were the increase of the national debt, and the number of troops that were kept in pay.

For many years after the king's accession, the country remained in great tranquillity. But in 1739 a war broke out with Spain. The dispute arose from a claim made by the British to cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, in Spanish America, of which the Spaniards had deprived them, notwithstanding the terms of a treaty. The complaints of the English merchants produced a general ardour for war; and, to gratify this desire, war was commenced.

Admiral Vernon took Porto-bello, a Spanish settlement on the Isthmus of Darien; and Commodore Anson, besides doing some damage on the coast of Chili, took one of the galleons, or vessels laden with gold for Spain. An expedition, however, against Carthagena, on the north-west coast of South America, in 1741, was very unfortunate; the troops, in an attempt to storm the place, were beaten back with great slaughter, and vast numbers perished by disease.

This affair produced violent indignation against the minister, Sir Robert Walpole, who was becoming unpopular on other accounts. He was accused of allowing the British fleets to remain inactive, while the commerce of Britain was almost destroyed by Spanish privateers. A misunderstanding, too, had arisen some time before, between the king and the prince of Wales, who had, in consequence, retired from court; and all his adherents joined the opposition against the minister. A majority against him was formed in the House of Commons, and he resigned his office, being at the same time created earl of Oxford.

In 1742, Great Britain engaged in a war arising out of disputes among the Continental powers. On the death of Charles VI., emperor of Germany, his daughter, Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, who ought to have succeeded him, was deprived of her inheritance by the elector of Bavaria, who, through the assistance of France,

was crowned emperor. Her own dominions were, at the same time attacked by France, Saxony, and Bavaria; and the English government resolved to take her part.

The interest which the king of England had in entering into this contest was to preserve the safety of Hanover, which might have been endangered by a war respecting the right to the empire of Germany, of which Hanover formed a part.

The British government sent an army of 16,000 men, under the earl Stair, into the Netherlands; to which was added an equal number of Hanoverian troops. Lord Stair's object was to join the army of the queen of Hungary; to prevent which, the French army, under Marshal Noailles, posted itself on the other side of the river Maine, and cut off the supplies of provisions for the British troops. The army was in this situation when it was joined by the king himself, and his son the duke of Cumberland. The king began a retreat to seek for a more advantageous position, but soon found that the enemy had surrounded him on every side, near the village of Dettingen. A battle now became necessary, notwithstanding the inferiority of force: but the rashness with which the French made their attack, saved the British army. They were repulsed with the loss of 5000 men, the British having lost 2000. The king behaved with great gallantry, exposing himself to the thickest of the fire. This was the last time that a king of England commanded his army in battle.

In the following year, the French assembled an army of 120,000 men, under the command of their celebrated general Marshal Saxe. They besieged the city of Tournay; and the duke of Cumberland, who now commanded the allied army, determined to risk a battle, in order to save that place, though with inferior numbers. He attacked the French near the village of Fontenoy, but was repulsed with the loss of 12,000 men, the French having lost as many. Tournay then surrendered to the French.

In the year 1745, Charles Edward Stuart, the son of the old Pretender, resolved to make an effort to gain the

British crown. Having received some money, and many promises of assistance from France, he landed in the north of Scotland, with seven officers, and arms for 2000 men. He was joined by some of the Highland chiefs with their followers, and advanced to Edinburgh, which he entered without opposition.

Sir John Cope, who commanded the king's forces, advanced to Edinburgh, and encamped at Preston Pans, a few miles from the city. He was attacked by the Highlanders, and defeated with the loss of 500 men. Had the Pretender profited by the terror and confusion produced by this victory, it might have had fatal consequences; but he trifled away his time at Edinburgh, and gave the government an opportunity of effectually opposing him.

Charles now marched into England, and after besieging and taking Carlisle, he advanced without opposition to Manchester, where he was joined by about 200 English. Thence he proceeded to Derby; but, being disappointed in the assistance they expected from France, and afraid of being surrounded by the English troops, the Scottish chiefs resolved, contrary to the wishes of the prince, to return homewards. They accordingly retreated, leaving a garrison of 400 men in Carlisle, which a few days afterwards surrendered to the king's troops.

After his return to Scotland, the Pretender's force received considerable additions. He laid siege to the castle of Stirling, and finding that General Hawley was advancing with a body of troops, he attacked and completely defeated them.

The duke of Cumberland, who had arrived from Flanders, now put himself at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, amounting to about 14,000 men. With these he followed the rebels, who had marched to the northward; and came up with them at Culloden, an extensive moor in the neighbourhood of Inverness. Here the prince drew up his army, consisting of 4000 men, to wait the duke of Cumberland's attack. The cannon of the king's army did dreadful execution among them, while their own proved useless. Their commander un-

wisely kept them for some time exposed to this fire, instead of allowing them to rush forward to the attack. At last their impatience could not be restrained; and a body of them attacked the king's troops with their usual fierceness, and threw the first line into disorder. But they met with a dreadful discharge from the battalions stationed behind; and at the same time the dragoons fell upon their flank, sword in hand, with great slaughter. In less than half an hour they were totally routed, and the field covered with their killed and wounded, to the number of 3000.

The conquerors made a cruel use of their victory. Quarter was refused, and many were slain who were mere spectators of the combat. The country, for many miles round, was laid waste, and the inhabitants put to the sword.

Charles escaped from the field with a few followers, and had a course of adventures very similar to those of Charles II. after the battle of Worcester. He wandered for five months among the wildest parts of the Highlands, and was often on the point of being taken; but though there was a reward of 30,000*l.* set upon his head, and though he trusted himself to more than fifty persons, not one was prevailed upon, even by so great a temptation, to betray him. He at last got on board a French privateer, with a few faithful friends, who had shared all his calamities, and got safe to France.

Government proceeded with great severity against the rebels who had been taken. Lords Balmerino, Kilmarnock, and Lovat, and Mr. Radcliffe (brother to the earl of Derwentwater, who was beheaded in 1715), were beheaded. Many officers were hanged, drawn, and quartered, at Kennington Common, Carlisle, and York. A few obtained pardons, and a considerable number of the common men were transported to the North American plantations.

Some regulations were then made for the future tranquillity of Scotland. Of these the most important was the abolition of the power, which the chieftains possessed by inheritance, of judging and punishing the vassals on

their estates. All power of this kind was taken away, and the chieftains and their vassals were placed equally under the general laws of the kingdom.

Soon after this rebellion, the duke of Cumberland returned to Flanders, and the war with France was carried on without decided advantage on either side, till the year 1748, when a war of which all parties were weary, was terminated by a treaty entered into at Aix-la-Chapelle.

Another war with France broke out in 1755, in consequence of some encroachments made by the French on the British North American settlements, and also of disputes between the British and French establishments in the East Indies.

The war in America was conducted for some time with little success, but in 1758 some important advantages were gained. In 1759, Quebec, the capital of Canada, was taken by the British troops, after they had defeated the French under Montcalm, though with the loss of their gallant commander, General Wolfe. In the following year the whole of Canada was subdued, and that province has ever since remained annexed to the British Empire.

The war in the East Indies was carried on with great violence for several years, till the British arms, under the conduct of Lord Clive, at last gained a complete ascendancy. The French gradually lost all their possessions in India, except the strong town of Pondicherry. This last stronghold was defended by General Lally with desperate perseverance, the garrison being forced, by famine, to eat dogs and cats; and he surrendered only when he found that a breach had been made, and that no more than one day's provisions remained. This conquest, which took place on the 15th of January, 1761, put an end to the power of the French in India.

An extensive war was at the same time carried on in Europe. The island of Minorca, which the English had taken from the Spaniards in Queen Anne's reign, was besieged by the French. Admiral Byng, with ten ships of war, was sent to relieve the place, but he failed in his

object, and Minorca was taken. Byng, being accused of misconduct, in this affair, was brought home under arrest, tried, and shot.

After the conquest of Minorca, the French threatened to attack Hanover. The king of England, anxious for the protection of that territory, entered into a treaty with Frederick, king of Prussia, by which that prince undertook to protect Hanover, while England agreed to assist him against Austria, France, and Russia, who had formed an alliance against him.

The Hanoverian troops were commanded by the duke of Cumberland, who was unable to resist the great force with which France invaded that country. His army was forced to lay down their arms, and Hanover fell into the hands of the French, who then turned their arms against the king of Prussia.

In a short time, the Hanoverians, roused by the oppressive manner in which they were treated by the French, again took up arms, and Mr. Pitt, who was now at the head of affairs in England, seized the opportunity of making a strong effort to preserve Hanover and assist Prussia. A body of British troops was sent over to join the Hanoverians, who were commanded by Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick; and in 1759, the British and Hanoverians defeated the French army at Minden.

After this victory the British army in Germany was increased to 30,000 men, and the war was continued during the year 1760, without any decided result.

In these circumstances, the king died suddenly on the 25th of October, 1760, in the seventy-seventh year of his age and thirty-fourth of his reign, deservedly lamented by his subjects. His son, the prince of Wales, having died in 1751, he was succeeded by his grandson, the eldest son of that prince.

George III.

CHAPTER XXII.

George III.

From 1760 to 1789.

George III. was twenty-two years old when he succeeded his grandfather.

Mr. Pitt continued to be the minister, and the war was carried on with great vigour. At this time France prevailed on Spain to join the confederacy against England; and Mr. Pitt, discovering the intention of Spain, urged an immediate declaration of war against that country. But this proposal being rejected by the king's privy-council, Mr. Pitt resigned his situation of minister, and was afterwards created earl of Chatham. The earl of Bute then took the lead of the administration.

Soon afterwards, however, the alliance between France and Spain being openly proclaimed, it was found necessary for Great Britain to declare war.

The Spaniards invaded Portugal, the ally of Great Britain, and a body of British troops was sent to assist the Portugese. Several actions took place during the year 1762, and the Spaniards were driven out of Portugal.

The British arms were equally successful in America and the West Indies. From the French were taken the islands of Martinique, St. Lucie, St. Vincent, and Grenada. From the Spaniards were taken the strong fortress of Havannah in the Island of Cuba, and the Philippine Islands in the East Indies. By these captures the commerce of Spain was nearly ruined.

During the same period the war was being continued in Germany, where the British and Hanoverians, under Prince Ferdinand, gained some advantages over the French, but not of a decisive kind.

After so many losses, the French and Spaniards were desirous of peace; and a treaty was concluded in 1763, by which Great Britain kept possession of the greatest part of the conquests made during the war, though some of them were restored.

In order to relieve the people of Great Britain of a part of the burden of the taxes, the ministry resolved to tax the North American colonies; and in 1765, an act of parliament was passed, imposing stamp duties upon them. This act was received in America with the greatest indignation. The colonists contended that, by the British constitution, the subjects cannot be taxed unless by the consent of their representatives in parliament, and that they, not being represented, could not be taxed. So great was the ferment, that it was found necessary to repeal this act; but at the same time another act was made declaring the right of parliament not only to tax the colonies, but to make laws binding on them in every case whatever.

In 1767, an act was passed, laying a tax on tea and some other articles imported into the American colonies.

This act was not put in force; and in 1770, when Lord North became minister, it was repealed with respect to all the articles except tea. Lord North imagined that a tax of a very trifling amount would not be objected to; but he did not sufficiently consider that it was the principle of taxation which the Americans resisted. The people of Boston, in New England, violently resisted the attempt to levy the tax on tea, and the ministry, to punish them, procured an act imposing restrictions on their commerce, and sent troops to enforce its execution.

A general spirit of resistance now spread over the American colonies. They sent representatives to a general congress, which met at Philadelphia, on the 5th of September, 1774; and that body published a declaration of their resolution to defend their rights.—Arms and military stores were provided in different places for defence against the British troops; and an attempt to seize a quantity of these, produced a battle at Lexington and Concord, near Boston, on the 19th of April, 1775, in which a number both of the soldiers and colonists were killed.

Both parties now proceeded to open war. Thirteen of the colonies formed themselves into a Union, to be conducted by delegates sent to the congress. The colonies of Canada and Nova Scotia, however, remained steady in their adherence to the mother-country.—George Washington, a Virginian gentleman, who had distinguished himself in the war with France, twenty years before, was placed at the head of the American army. On the other hand, large bodies of troops, under General Howe and Lord Cornwallis, were sent from England.

During the year 1776, the British troops, on the whole, had the advantage. But in the ensuing winter and spring, Washington found means to strengthen and discipline his army; and in 1777, a British army, under General Burgoyne, having been surrounded by the American forces, was obliged to lay down their arms at Saratoga.

The success of the Americans induced France to join

them against Great Britain. A treaty between France and the United States (as the American government was styled,) was concluded in 1778, and a French fleet with troops was sent to America.

The nation now began to be discouraged by the ill success of the war; and a motion was made in the House of Lords, that the troops should be withdrawn from America. It was opposed by the venerable earl of Chatham, who was lifted from a sick-bed for that purpose. He had opposed the measures which led to the war; but he now protested against yielding to the dread of France. While engaged in this debate, he suddenly sank down in a fit, and was carried, apparently lifeless, from the House. This striking scene happened on the 2nd April, 1778: and this great statesman expired a few weeks afterwards.

The war was carried on without any remarkable event till the year 1781; but in October of that year, Lord Cornwallis was under the necessity of surrendering himself and his army to General Washington. From that time all expectation of subduing the Americans was at an end.

In 1779, Spain joined the enemies of Great Britain; and in 1780, Holland was added to the confederacy. Britain made vigorous efforts against these combined powers; and many brilliant exploits were performed by her navy. In 1780, Admiral Rodney defeated the Spanish fleet under Don Juan de Langara, and in 1782, the French fleet under the Count de Grasse. The French and Spaniards besieged Gibraltar, which was defended by General Elliot; but, after a long siege, and the failure of a great attack on the place, they were obliged to give up the attempt; and Britain has ever since retained undisturbed possession of this important fortress.

The bad success of the British troops in America, and the burdens caused by the war, had now rendered Lord North's ministry unpopular; and the opposition against him, led by Mr. Fox, was so strong, that he resigned in March, 1782. He was succeeded by a ministry, the

chief members of which were the marquis of Rockingham, Lord Shelburne, and Mr. Fox. The death of the marquis of Rockingham, a few months afterwards, produced a further change. Mr. Fox, disappointed in his wish of obtaining the highest situation, resigned; and Lord Shelburne obtained the assistance of Mr. William Pitt (son of the earl of Chatham), who was made Chancellor of the Exchequer.

William Pitt.

The new ministry entered into a treaty for a general peace; but in the meantime, Mr. Fox and his Whig friends having joined the party of Lord North, their united strength procured the dismissal of Lord Shelburne; and a ministry was formed, known by the name of the Coalition, in which Mr. Fox and Lord North were joint secretaries of state. These ministers concluded treaties of peace with France, Spain, and the United States of America, which were signed on the 3d of September, 1783. In the following year peace

was concluded with Holland. By these treaties, Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States; and restored to France and Spain a part of the possessions which had been taken from them during the war.

The coalition between two persons so opposite to each other in political principles as Lord North and Mr. Fox, gave general disgust to the nation as well as to the king; and his majesty resolved to dismiss them, though they had a majority of the House of Commons on their side. Mr. Pitt, then only in his twenty-fifth year, was placed at the head of the new ministry in the end of 1783, and parliament was soon afterwards dissolved. On the new parliament meeting, Mr. Pitt was supported by large majorities, a proof that the king's choice was agreeable to the country.

In 1788, the king was seized with a disorder of mind which rendered him, for some months, incapable of attending to public affairs. Some discussions took place as to the appointment of a regency, which were stopped by his majesty's recovery.

A considerable period of peace now ensued, during which the British nation enjoyed a state of increasing prosperity, and the violence of party spirit declined amidst the general tranquillity. In this state matters continued till the peace of the world was disturbed by the breaking out of the French revolution.

CHAPTER XXIII.

George III. *continued.*

From 1789 to 1820.

The French revolution commenced in 1789. It is sufficient here to mention that, after the French had overturned the government and religion of the state, and put their king to death on a scaffold, they declared themselves the enemies of royalty all over the world, and rendered it necessary for the neighbouring governments to guard against their furious designs. In 1792, Austria and Prussia took up arms; but Britain, though she disdained to acknowledge the French republic, remained passive until the intelligence arrived of the murder of the king, in January, 1793, when the French agent was ordered instantly to quit the country. On the 1st of February, France declared war against Britain.

The French troops having invaded the Netherlands, a British army, under the duke of York, was sent to join the Austrians and Prussians. They were unable however, to resist the French arms. The duke of York, after suffering considerable loss, was under the necessity of returning to England; and the French obtained possession of the Netherlands. But while the French were thus successful by land, their fleet was totally defeated by Lord Howe, on the 1st of June, 1794.

The war continued on the Continent with great fury; but Britain did not again take an active part in it till 1797. The Spaniards and Dutch had, in the meantime, entered into alliance with France. The Spanish fleet was defeated off Cape St. Vincent by Sir John Jervis, afterwards created earl St. Vincent, on the 14th of February; and the Dutch fleet was defeated off Camperdown, by Admiral Duncan, on the 11th of October.

Both admirals were raised to the peerage. In 1797, Austria made peace with France—Prussia had done so some time before; so that Britain was left to continue the contest single-handed.

In the same year an alarming mutiny took place in the fleet lying at the Nore, which, by the firmness of government, and particularly of the admiral, earl St. Vincent, was happily suppressed.

Earl St. Vincent.

In 1798 a rebellion broke out in Ireland, excited by a band of conspirators, who were in communication with France. It raged chiefly in the counties of Wexford and Wicklow, which became a dreadful scene of contention and slaughter. The rebels had assembled in great force in a strong position on Vinegar Hill, which was stormed and taken after a bloody engagement. A

great body of them were afterwards driven out of Wexford, and were pursued and defeated. A number of their leaders (some of whom were men of rank and station) were taken and executed.

The French government having sent an expedition to Egypt, under General Buonaparte, Admiral Nelson was despatched in pursuit of it. When he arrived on the coast of Egypt, the French troops had landed, and the fleet was lying in the Bay of Aboukir. He attacked it on the 1st of August, 1798, at sunset; and after a dread-

Admiral Duncan.

ful engagement, which continued till morning, nearly the whole French fleet was taken and destroyed. During the battle, L'Orient, the French Admiral's ship, blew up, and all on board perished. For this splendid achievement Admiral Nelson was elevated to the peerage.

Buonaparte, after remaining some time in Egypt, hearing of the unsettled state of affairs at home, sud-

denly left his army, and returned to France, where he contrived to place himself at the head of the government, under the title of *Chief Consul.*

In 1799, the Austrians again went to war with France, and were joined by the Russians; and many bloody engagements took place in the north of Italy and Switzerland. To favour the operations of the allies, a British army, under General Abercrombie, was sent to Holland; it landed at the Helder, and was soon joined by a Russian force. The command was taken by the duke of York; and the allied troops defeated the French and Dutch, with considerable loss, in several engagements. Owing, however, to the superior numbers of the enemy, together with the bad weather and roads, and the want of supplies, the duke was obliged to re-embark his troops and return to England.

The year 1800 was remarkable for a union between Great Britain and Ireland, of a similar nature to the union of England and Scotland. The three countries were formed into one kingdom, styled "the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland;" and Ireland was represented in parliament by twenty-eight peers, and one hundred commoners. The union commenced on the 1st of January, 1801.

As the French still kept possession of Egypt, a British force under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, was sent against them. These troops having landed near Alexandria, were attacked, on the 21st of March, 1801, by the French, under General Menou, whom they defeated after a bloody engagement, in which the brave Abercrombie was killed. General Hutchinson, who succeeded to the command, soon drove the French out of Egypt.

In consequence of the successes of the French against the Austrians, in 1800, the emperor was obliged to make a disadvantageous peace known by the name of the Treaty of Luneville. The Emperor Paul of Russia, too, now made peace with France, and began hostilities against Britain, by detaining all her vessels in his harbours.

A quarrel about the same time took place with Den-

mark and Sweden, in consequence of the British ships searching some of their vessels, which were suspected of carrying property belonging to their enemies. An expedition was sent against Copenhagen, in March, 1801, and Lord Nelson, who had the command, attacked the Danish fleet stationed for the defence of that city. After a very severe battle, in which the greater part of the Danish ships were taken or destroyed, Lord Nelson offered terms of truce, which were agreed to.

On the death of the Emperor Paul (who was murdered by some of the nobility who had conspired against him), his successor, Alexander, made peace with England, and a treaty was also concluded with Denmark and Sweden.

In the beginning of this year (1801) Mr. Pitt resigned his situation of minister, and was succeeded by Mr. Addington, afterwards created Viscount Sidmouth. A negotiation with France was now entered into; and a treaty of peace was signed at Amiens, on the 25th of March, 1802.

This event caused great joy throughout the nation; but it was soon found that Buonaparte had no desire that the peace should be lasting. Disputes arose as to the fulfilment of the treaty; and Buonaparte's demands were so unreasonable, that Lord Whitworth, the British ambassador, was recalled; and a vigorous renewal of the war was voted by immense majorities in both houses of parliament.

In 1804, Mr Addington retired from office, and Mr. Pitt resumed his former station. Buonaparte, now become emperor of France, induced Spain to enter into an alliance with him, and to declare war against Britain. The war was carried on without any remarkable event occurring, till Lord Nelson encountered the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar, on the 21st October, 1805. In this memorable battle, the fleets of the enemy were totally destroyed, but the victory was attended with the loss of the illustrious Nelson, who was killed by a musket shot.

Lord Nelson.

Mr. Pitt died on the 23d of January, 1806, and a new ministry was formed from the Whig party, with Mr. Fox at its head. Mr. Fox endeavoured to enter into a treaty with France, but found it impossible to obtain reasonable terms, and the treaty was broken off. Mr. Fox died on the 13th of September; and in March, 1807, a Tory ministry was formed, at the head of which was Mr. Perceval, who was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and Lord Castlereagh, Lord Hawkesbury, and Mr. Canning became secretaries of state.

In 1807, several foreign expeditions planned by Mr. Fox's ministry, were attended with unfortunate results. General Whitelock was sent to South America, to reduce the Spanish settlement of Buenos Ayres. In his attempt to obtain possession of the town, he allowed himself to be surrounded by the enemy, and was obliged, after losing a great many men, to agree to retire from the province. He was tried for misconduct, and dismissed from the service. In consequence of its having

been supposed that Turkey was inclined to favour the interests of France, an expedition was sent to Constantinople, to demand a declaration of the Sultan's views. The fleet forced a passage through the Straits of the Dardanelles; but found the approaches to Constantinople so strongly fortified, that it was obliged to return, after losing a great number of men by the fire of the Turkish batteries. Another expedition was sent to dispossess the Turks of Egypt; but after Alexandria had been taken with the loss of many of the British soldiers, the troops were unable to withstand the great force brought against them, and were obliged to retire from Egypt.

Lord Castlereagh.

One of the first measures of the new ministry was to send an expedition to Copenhagen. As there was reason to believe that Buonaparte intended to force the Danes into an alliance with him that he might obtain the use of their fleet to replace that which Lord Nelson

had destroyed, it was considered proper to demand that the Danes should deliver to the English the custody of their fleet; and this demand was accompanied with an offer to protect the Danish territories from any aggression on the part of the French.

The demand being refused, the naval and military commanders bombarded the city, and took possession of the fleet, which was taken to England. The Danes immediately declared war against that country.

In the year 1808, Buonaparte having deprived the king of Spain of his crown, and placed his brother, Joseph Buonaparte, on the throne, the conduct of the French became so oppressive, that it roused the people to a general insurrection. They formed temporary governments in every province, and requested assistance from England. An army was immediately sent to Spain, under Sir Arthur Wellesly, who defeated the French at Vimiera, on the 21st of August; but the fruits of the victory were lost by an agreement concluded by Sir Hew Dalrymple (who had arrived and taken the command immediately after the battle), in consequence of which the French troops, instead of being obliged to surrender, were conveyed to France.

In November, another British army arrived in Spain, under Sir John Moore. They penetrated a considerable way into the country, but were obliged to retreat, and after dreadful calamities, arrived at Corunna, on the 16th of January, 1809. The French army which closely followed them, attempted to prevent their embarking; and a battle took place in which the French were completely defeated. Sir John Moore fell in the engagement; but the troops embarked without further molestation.

In the spring of 1809, Sir Arthur Wellesly landed in Portugal with additional troops. Marching into Spain, he joined the Spanish army under General Cuesta, and on the 28th of July, defeated the French under Marshal Victor at Talavera. In this battle the French had 10,000 men killed and wounded, and the British half the number. The Spaniards took a small share in the en-

gagement. After this battle, Sir Arthur retired to the frontiers of Portugal, to defend that country, the French having collected a great force for its invasion. During the year 1810, he remained in the defensive position, and prevented Marshal Massena, who had followed him into Portugal, from penetrating far into that kingdom. At last Massena was compelled to withdraw his troops into Spain, and was followed by Sir Arthur, now Viscount Wellington. During the years 1811 and 1812, many engagements and sieges took place, and the British troops gained several brilliant victories, of which the most remarkable were those of Barrosa, Albuera, and Salamanca. But the great strength of the French armies obliged Lord Wellington, in the end of 1812, again to retire into Portugal.

The total destruction, during the winter of 1812, of the immense army led by the emperor of France into Russia, made it necessary for him to withdraw a part of his troops from Spain. A great force still remained; but Lord Wellington now attacked them vigorously; and after defeating Marshal Jourdan, in a great and decisive battle at Vittoria, drove the French army out of Spain, and followed it into France, which he entered on the 7th of October, 1813. His last achievement was the defeat of Marshal Soult at Toulouse, on the 10th of April, 1814.

Further hostilities were put an end to by the intelligence that Buonaparte had been forced to abdicate, and that Louis XVIII. (the brother of the king who was put to death in 1793) was restored to the throne. The destruction of the French army had encouraged Prussia and Austria to declare war against Buonaparte; and the united Russian, Austrian, and Prussian forces, having entered France, and obtained possession of Paris, had produced the above result. Buonaparte was conveyed to Elba, a small island on the coast of Italy, fixed on as his residence. On the 3d of May, 1814, Louis XVIII., who had resided for some years in England, made his solemn entry into the capital of the kingdom; and on

the 30th of that month, peace was concluded between Britain and the other allied powers and France.

In the beginning of 1815, Buonaparte suddenly escaped from Elba, and landed in France, where he was received with acclamations by the army. He proceeded without opposition to Paris, from which the king had fled, and immediately resumed the government. The allied powers prepared to invade France; and Buonaparte proceeded, with an army of 150,000 men, to meet them in the Netherlands, where the British and Prussian armies already were; the British under the duke of Wellington, and the Prussians under Marshals Bulow and Blucher. After several bloody encounters on the 15th and 16th, a general battle took place on the 18th of June, near the village of Waterloo, in which, after a desperate conflict which lasted the whole day, the French army was completely routed, and Buonaparte with difficulty saved himself by flight. He returned to Paris, but finding his situation hopeless, he endeavoured to escape to America. Finding himself unable to avoid an English ship of war, he gave himself up, and was sent by the allies to the island of St. Helena, in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean, where he remained till his death on the 5th of May, 1821. Louis XVIII. returned to Paris; and a new treaty of peace was concluded.

In following the course of these important events, a few circumstances have been passed over which may now be mentioned.

In 1810 the king was again afflicted with the same calamity from which he had suffered in 1788. The prince of Wales was appointed regent, and continued in that situation till the king's death. He retained the same ministers who had enjoyed his father's confidence.

In May, 1812, Mr. Perceval, the prime minister, was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons, by a person of the name of Bellingham, from some motive of private revenge. The murderer was condemned and executed. Mr. Perceval was succeeded, as minister, by the earl of Liverpool.

In the same year, some disputes with America, relat-

ing to matters of commerce, produced a war with that country. Hostilities were carried on for nearly three years ; and peace was restored by a treaty, on the 24th December, 1814.*

In 1815, the princess Charlotte of Wales, the heiress-apparent to the crown, was married to the prince Leopold of Saxe-Cobourg. This union, in all respects a most happy one, terminated by the death of the princess, who expired on the 6th November, 1817, after being delivered of a dead child ; an event which was deeply lamented by the whole nation.

The states of Barbary, particularly Algiers, had of late proceeded such lengths in the custom, which they had been allowed to follow for ages, of plundering the vessels of the Christian nations, and carrying their prisoners into slavery, that Britain determined to put an end to the practice. Lord Exmouth, who had been sent with a squadron to Algiers, at first endeavoured to gain the object by negotiation ; but, having failed in this attempt, he proceeded to enforce compliance with the demands of the British. The dey determined to resist, and on the 27th August, 1816, a tremendous battle took place ; the Algerine batteries were destroyed ; their navy, arsenal, and half the city were burnt ; and 7000 men were killed or wounded. Lord Exmouth lost 900 men. The result of this glorious achievement was the liberation of a great number of captives, and the total abolition of Christian slavery.

The queen died on the 17th of November, 1818 ; and his majesty himself expired on the 29th January, 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age, and sixtieth of his reign. During the last year of his reign, the peace of the country was disturbed by the proceedings of a party known by the name of *radical reformers*, who assembled the people of the manufacturing districts in great meetings, and endeavoured to excite them against the constitution and the government. One of these meetings,

* The particulars of this war are given in the History of the United States, belonging to this series.

which took place at Manchester, on the 16th of August, 1819, could not be dispersed without force, and unhappily several lives were lost. By the firmness of the government, however, a stop was put to these tumultuous assemblages.

King George III. during his long reign commanded the respect and affection of his subjects, by the integrity of his principles, the benevolence of his disposition, and the purity of his life. Though in the discharge of his arduous duties, during times of great difficulty and danger, his views may not have been uniformly sound, yet it is universally admitted, they were sincerely and earnestly directed to the good of his kingdom.

CHAPTER XXIV.

George IV.

From 1820 to 1830.

The accession of George the Fourth to the throne was little more than nominal, as he had, in his character of regent of the kingdom, long exercised all the functions of royalty.

In 1795 he had married his cousin, the princess Caroline of Brunswick, by whom he had an only daughter, the princess Charlotte. They separated soon afterwards; and her unguarded behaviour led to suspicions which produced an investigation, the result of which proved that she had not conducted herself with the propriety becoming her station. Soon afterwards she went abroad, and travelled over various countries, from which rumours of a scandalous nature, respecting her conduct, were from time to time received. On the king's accession she returned to England, and it was then considered necessary to investigate fully the charges against her. A "Bill of Pains and Penalties" was accordingly

brought into the House of Lords, but it was supported by such small majorities, that the ministers determined to proceed no further in the matter. The queen was seized with an illness in the month of July in the following year, and died on the 7th of August.

In 1822, Mr. Peel became secretary of state, in the place of Lord Sidmouth, who resigned. In the same year, the marquess of Londonderry terminated his life by his own hand, in a fit of derangement produced by over-fatigue and exertion of mind. He was succeeded in the office of secretary of state for foreign affairs by Mr. Canning. Mr. Robinson was at the same time appointed chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Huskisson came into office as president of the board of trade.

It having been proposed by some of the foreign powers to hold a meeting, or congress, at Vienna, for the purpose of settling several differences which existed among the European governments, the duke of Wellington was sent to attend this meeting on the part of Great Britain. It soon appeared, however, that it was the object of some of these powers to make this congress an engine for the suppression of freedom in Spain and Greece. France having determined to restore the absolute power of the king of Spain by force of arms, received assurance of support from all the other powers assembled at the congress, except Great Britain, who protested in the strongest terms against any such interference.

Notwithstanding the opposition of Great Britain, France sent an army into Spain, in 1823. A small party in Britain were desirous to take up arms in defence of the Spanish constitution; but the great majority of the nation was fully satisfied with the conduct of government, in having declined to interfere. The Spaniards showed no inclination to support their constitutional government, and the French army restored the absolute power of the king without opposition.

In 1823, some proceedings took place in parliament respecting the slaves in the British colonies. A motion was made for the abolition of slavery, which, together with the debate upon it, caused, however unintention-

ally, very disastrous effects. The negroes were led to believe that their freedom had been granted by parliament, and was unjustly withheld by their masters. An insurrection broke out in the colony of Demerara, attended with much destruction of life and property; and similar disasters in other colonies were only prevented by means of the military force. The above motion was not insisted on; but several measures for improving the conditions of the slaves, which were in preparation before it was brought forward, were carried into effect. These consisted chiefly in restraining the use of the whip, and abolishing its application to females; in preventing the separation of families by sale; in protecting the property of the slaves, admitting their evidence, and rendering it more easy for them to obtain their freedom; and, above all, by providing for their religious instruction. For this last purpose, a regular church establishment was formed in the West India islands, with two bishops at its head.

In 1824, a war broke out in the East Indies with the Burmese, a warlike and powerful people of India beyond the Ganges. Great Britain had gradually obtained the dominion over the whole peninsula of Hindostan; but the Burmese were not deterred by her great power from making frequent encroachments on her territories. War was therefore declared against them; and the Burmese empire was invaded in April, by a small army under General Sir Archibald Campbell. After a series of desperate engagements with the immense armies of the enemy, the British penetrated above five hundred miles into the heart of the empire, and the emperor submitted to the terms of peace which were imposed upon him, when General Campbell was within fifty miles of his capital. By the treaty the emperor surrendered a part of his territory, engaged to abstain from further encroachments, and agreed to pay a sum equal to about a million sterling. This treaty was made on the 24th of February, 1826.

The year 1825 was a period of great public distress. Commerce had, for some time, been rapidly reviving,

and a great spirit of speculation arose. The Spanish colonies in South America had recovered their independence, and had obtained immense loans from the merchants and possessors of money in England. The sums thus lent were advanced under a mistaken belief of the the wealth and tranquillity of these new states; but it turned out that they were unable to repay the interest of these loans, and an immense amount of British wealth was thus lost.

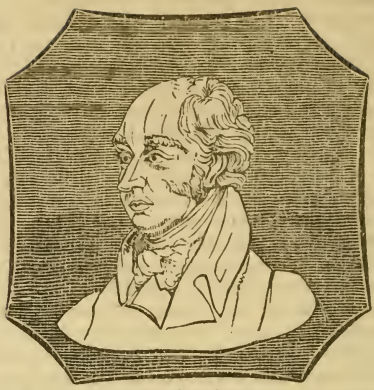
Projects were next set on foot for speculating in the gold and silver mines of South America, from which the most extravagant expectations of profit were entertained. *Joint-stock Companies* were established for purchasing and working these mines; and so eager was the public to obtain shares in these companies, that shares, which had been bought for 70*l.*, were sold, a few weeks afterwards, for 1300*l.* At the same time innumerable projects for gaining money in England were started, and companies were formed, into which the public rushed with the utmost eagerness. These embraced every branch of trade, from the most extensive manufactures, down to the selling of milk and the washing of clothes, in London. The rage for mercantile gambling was more extensive than in the famous South-sea year (1720), and was attended with most disastrous consequences. Almost every one of these projects was found to be visionary and ruinous; and it has been computed that above *forty millions* of the wealth of Britain were in the course of this year thrown away in those different ways. Besides the British manufacturers had been sending to the foreign markets much greater quantities of goods than there was a demand for; and they had, consequently, to sell them at a ruinous loss. The consequence of all this was the failure of the most established banks, and mercantile houses in all parts of the kingdom, and a general panic overspread the country. It abated, however, by degrees, and public confidence was restored before the end of the following year.

In 1826, Great Britain was called upon to interfere in the affairs of Portugal. On the death of Don Juan,

king of Portugal, his son, Don Pedro, assumed the title of emperor of Brazil, resigning the crown of Portugal to his daughter, Donna Maria, and establishing a constitutional government in that country. A party was formed for overturning it; and Spain assisted their designs, by arming the Portuguese insurgents who had taken refuge in her territories, and enabling them to invade Portugal from the Spanish frontiers. The constitutional regency demanded from Great Britain the assistance to which, by treaty, Portugal was entitled against foreign invasion. The demand was granted, and a considerable army was immediately sent to Portugal. The Portuguese insurgents were driven back to Spain; and the Spanish court agreed to disarm them, and give them no further assistance. In 1828, Don Miguel, the younger brother of Don Pedro, arrived in Portugal to assume the regency in the name of his niece. He professed fidelity to the constitutional settlement of the kingdom; and, soon after his arrival in Portugal, the British troops were withdrawn. Immediately after their departure he took possession of the crown on his own account; in which he appears to have been supported by the mass of the people, and received no opposition from the constitutional party.

Repeated changes took place in the councils of George IV. during the latter years of his reign. These were too complicated in themselves and in their causes to be here detailed; but it is proper here to mention that, on the earl of Liverpool being attacked by a stroke of the palsy, in 1827, his place at the head of the administration was taken by Mr. Canning; that on Mr. Canning's death, in August of that year, he was succeeded by Lord Goderich; and that, on the resignation of Lord Goderich, in the beginning of 1828, the duke of Wellington became prime-minister.

The last remarkable foreign transaction of this reign related to Greece. Great Britain, France, and Russia, agreed to enforce a cessation of hostilities between Turkey and Greece, and to insist on Turkey being satisfied with an annual tribute from the Greeks. The Turkish



Mr. Canning.

government having refused to agree to this proposal, a combined fleet was sent to force compliance. It stationed itself off the harbour of Navarino, where a large Turkish fleet had assembled for an expedition against the Greeks; and the commanders learning the determination of the Turks to agree to no proposals, attacked their fleet in the harbour, on the 20th of October, 1827, and totally destroyed it, after a desperate engagement.

In the year 1829, the emancipation of the Roman Catholics of Ireland—a measure which had been for many years keenly agitated—was accomplished. The duke of Wellington and Mr. Peel, who had on all former occasions steadily opposed it, now determined to bring it forward as a measure of government, on the ground that any evils which might arise from it, were less to be dreaded than insurrection and civil war in Ireland. The measure met with much opposition both

in parliament and throughout the kingdom; but the emancipation bill was carried in both houses, and received the royal assent on the 13th of April, 1829. The effect of this act was, the admission of Romanists to the enjoyment of nearly the same political rights as Protestants.

This was the last great event of the reign of George the Fourth. During this reign many important laws were made relative to the commerce and finances of the kingdom, the nature and effects of which must be studied in works of greater magnitude than the present.

From the beginning of the year 1830, the king's health began rapidly to decline, and, after a painful and lingering disease, he expired on the 26th of June, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and eleventh of his reign.

CHAPTER XXV.

WILLIAM IV.

FROM 1830 TO 1837.

ON the death of George IV., the succession to the crown devolved upon William Henry duke of Clarence, the third son of George the III., and the eldest surviving brother of the late monarch. On the 28th of June, 1830, he was proclaimed king, by the title of WILLIAM THE FOURTH; though his coronation did not take place till the month of September in the following year.

For some time before the death of George IV., the question of Parliamentary Reform had been agitated throughout the country with increasing earnestness. Proposals had been made in parliament to deprive of the right of sending members to the House of Commons, certain boroughs, which, in the course of time, had lost their previous importance, and to confer this right on several towns which had risen, in modern times, into

William IV.

magnitude and wealth. These propositions had been resisted from a fear of the consequences that might result from so important a change in the established institutions of the country.

On the accession of William the Fourth he retained in office the ministers of the late king, and expressed his approbation of their previous conduct and policy; but on the meeting of parliament in November, the opposition to the duke of Wellington and his cabinet had become so strong, on account of their resistance to parliamentary reform, that the duke and his colleagues found themselves unable to carry on the government, and, consequently, tendered their resignation. This was

accepted by the king; and a Whig administration was formed, at the head of which was Earl Grey.

On the 1st of March, 1831, the "Reform Bill" was brought into the House of Commons by Lord John Russell. The object of this important measure was to provide for a more equal and extensive representation of the people in parliament. It amounted substantially to this: a number of the smallest boroughs were disfranchised, or, in other words, deprived of the right of electing representatives, and others, which had formerly sent two members to parliament, were restricted to one; while on the other hand, this right was conferred upon many towns which had not formerly possessed it, and the number of county members was considerably increased. A new electoral qualification was introduced in the boroughs; the power of voting for representatives being conferred on the occupiers of houses or other tenements, within the borough, of ten pounds yearly rent and upwards. In the counties, the old qualification of property of the annual value of forty shillings was continued, with the addition (which was made in the progress of the measure through parliament) of the occupation, as tenant, of land of fifty pounds yearly rent and upwards.

Such are the general features of the Reform Bill as it was ultimately passed. It encountered, however, long and strenuous opposition. The House of Commons, soon after the bill was brought in, having voted that the number of members for England and Wales should not be altered as was proposed, the king dissolved the parliament. When the new parliament met, the bill was again brought in, and passed the House of Commons on the 21st September, 1831; but was rejected by the House of Lords on the second reading.

A second bill, similar to the former, was immediately brought in, again passed the House of Commons, and again met with such a powerful resistance in the Lords, that the ministers, finding themselves unable to carry it through that House, tendered their resignations to his Majesty. The situation of prime-minister was offered to

Sir Robert Peel; but he declined to accept it. Meanwhile, the country exhibited signs of great political agitation, one remarkable indication of which was a *run* (as it is termed) on the Bank of England, from which in the course of two or three days money was drawn to the amount of above a million of pounds sterling. In these circumstances the duke of Wellington himself recommended the recall of the king's ministers, who were, accordingly, reinstated. At the same time, the members of the House of Lords, who had hitherto resisted the Bill, withdrew their opposition. It then passed the House of Lords, without further impediment, and on the 7th of June, 1832, received the royal assent and became the law of the land.

Acts of parliament were also passed for the government of British India, for the abolition of Negro Slavery, and for the reform of the municipal corporations of England and Scotland; and another, which effected an entire change in the administration of the Poor Laws.

After the passing of the Reform Bill, several changes took place in the ministry. Earl Grey having resigned in the summer of 1834, was succeeded by Lord Melbourne. In November following, the administration of Lord Melbourne was dissolved by his Majesty, and a new ministry formed under Sir Robert Peel. A dissolution of parliament consequently took place, but, on the meeting of the new parliament, in February, 1835, the ministry met with so strong an opposition, that they soon afterwards resigned, and Lord Melbourne was restored, and continued to administer the government during the remainder of king William's reign.

In the beginning of 1837, the king's health began to decline, and a general debility was followed by dropsy. He lingered for several months, enduring his sufferings with firmness and Christian resignation; and at length expired on the morning of the 20th of June, 1837.

William the Fourth was, during his whole reign, greatly beloved by the nation. In his youth he had served long and actively in the navy, and had acquired the plain blunt manners of the sailor. With these he

united much integrity of principle, and a kind and benevolent temper. His habits of life and those of his queen, Adelaide, were simple, domestic, and economical, but their economy in their personal expenditure was accompanied by a course of truly royal beneficence and charity. In business he was sedulous and active, and is said even to have exceeded his father in those habits of regularity and dispatch, for which that monarch was distinguished. Without being possessed of strong parts, or great acquirements, he was endowed with much good sense, and actuated by pure motives in the discharge of his duty.

King William was succeeded by the present sovereign, QUEEN VICTORIA, the daughter of his Majesty's next younger brother, the late duke of Kent.

CONTEMPORARY KINGS

OF

ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, AND FRANCE,

FROM THE TIME OF

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR,

WITH THE DATES OF THEIR ACCESSION, AND THE DURATION OF THEIR RESPECTIVE REIGNS.

The number of years given includes the *whole* of the last year of the reign. Thus, Henry I. is stated to have reigned 36 years, that is, he died on the 2d of December, in the 36th year of his reign, which commenced August 2.

A. D.	ENGLAND.	Reigned Yrs.	SCOTLAND.	Reigned Yrs.	FRANCE.	Reig. Yrs.
1066 October 14	Will'm the Conqueror	21	Malcolm Canmore	37	Philip I.	49
1087 September 9	William Rufus	13	.....		.....	
1094	.....		Donald XII.	6	.....	
1099	.....		Edgar	10	.....	
1100 August 2 ..	Henry I.	36	.....		.....	
1108	.....		Alexander	18	.....	
—— July 29	.....		.....		Louis VI.	30
1124	.....		David I.	30	.....	
1135 December 2	Stephen	19	.....		.....	
1137 Oct. 1 or 25	.....		.....		Louis VII.	43
1153 May 23	.....		Malcolm IV.	13	.....	
1154 October 25 .	Henry II.	35	.....		.....	
1165 Dec. 10	.....		Wm. the Lion	50	.....	
1180 Sept. 11....	.....		.....		Philip II.	43
1189 July 7	Richard I.	10	.....		.....	
1199 April 6	John	18	.....		.....	
1215	.....		Alexander II.	34	.....	
1216 Oct. 19	Henry III.	57	.....		.....	
1233 July 1 or 14	.....		.....		Louis VIII.	4
1236 Nov. 7	.....		.....		Louis IX.	44
1248	.....		Alexander III.	38	.....	
1270 August 25..	.....		.....		Philip III.	16
1272 Nov. 16....	Edward I.	35	.....		.....	
1285 Oct. 6 or 15	.....		.....		Philip IV.	30
1286 to 1292.....	.....		Competition for the Crown.		.....	
1292	.....		John Baliol	5	.....	
1297 to 1305	.....		Interregnum.		.....	
1306	.....		Rob't I. Bruce	24	.....	
1307 July 7	Edward II.	20	.....		.....	

A. D.	ENGLAND.	Reigned Yrs.	SCOTLAND.	Reigned Yrs.	FRANCE.	Reig. Yrs.
1314 Nov. 24....	.....		.....		Louis X.	2
1316 June 5.....	.....		.....		Philip V.....	6
1322 Jan. 3	.....		.....		Charles IV. ...	6
1327 Jan. 25....	Edward III.	51	.....		.....	
—— February ..	.....		.....		Philip VI.....	24
1329 June 9.....	.....		David II. ..		.....	
1332	.....		Ed. Baliol*	41	.....	
1343	.....		Dav. II. rstd		.....	
1350 Aug. 22....	.....		.....		John the Good.	14
1364 April 8	.....		.....		Charles V.	16
1370 Feb. 29	.....		Robert II.	21	.....	
1377 June 22....	Richard II. ...	23	.....		.....	
1380 Sept. 16....	.....		.....		Charles VI. ...	43
1390 April 12....	.....		Robert III. ...	16	.....	
1399 Sept. 29....	Henry IV.....	14	.....		.....	
1406 March 16 ..	.....		James I.	31	.....	
1413 March 20 ..	Henry V.	10	.....		.....	
1422 Aug. 31....	Henry VI.	39	.....		.....	
—— Oct. 20	.....		.....		Charles VII. ..	39
1438 Feb. 21	.....		James II.....	24	.....	
1460 Aug. 3.....	.....		James III....	28	.....	
1461 March 4 ...	Edward IV. ..	23	.....		.....	
—— July 22	.....		.....		Louis XI.....	23
1483 April 9	Edward V...		.....		.....	
—— June 26....	Richard III. ..	3	.....		.....	
—— Oct. 30	.....		.....		Charles VIII. .	15
1485 Aug. 22....	Henry VII. ...	24	.....		.....	
1488 June 9.....	.....		James IV.....	26	.....	
1498 April 7	.....		.....		Louis XII.	17
1509 April 21 ...	Henry VIII. ..	38	.....		.....	
1513 Sept. 9.....	.....		James V.....	30	.....	
1515 Jan. 1	.....		.....		Francis I.....	33
1542 Dec. 13	.....		Mary.....	25	.....	
1547 Jan. 28	Edward VI. ..	7	.....		.....	
—— March 31 ..	.....		.....		Henry II.	13
1553 July 6	Mary.....	6	.....		.....	
1558 Nov. 17 ...	Elizabeth	45	.....		.....	
1559 July 11	.....		.....		Francis II....	2
1560 December..	.....		.....		Charles IX. ...	14
1567 July 24	.....		James VI., afterwards James I. of England.	36	.....	
1574 May 30	.....		.....		Henry III.	16
1589 August 2 ..	.....		.....		Henry IV.....	21

A. D.	ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND UNITED.	Reigned Yrs.	FRANCE.	Reig. Yrs.
1603 March 24 ..	James I.....	23	.....	
1611 May 14	.....		Louis XIII.....	33
1625 March 27 ..	Charles I.....	24	.....	
1643 May 14	.....		Louis XIV.....	73

* Reigned eleven years of the period included in the reign of David II.

A. D.	ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND UNITED.	Reigned Yrs.	FRANCE.	Reig Yrs
1649 January 30	Charles II.	37	.....	
—— to 1660	Usurpation of Cromwell		.....	
1685 February 6	James II.	5	.....	
1689	William III. and Mary	6	.....	
1694 Dec. 28	William III. (alone)	8	.....	
1702 March 8	Anne.	13	.....	
1714 August 1	George I.	13	.....	
1715 September 1	.....		Louis XV.	59
1727 June 11	George II.	34	.....	
1760 Oct. 25	George III.	60	.....	
1774 May 10	.....		Louis XVI.	19
1792	.....		.....	Republic
1793 Jan. 21	.....		Louis XVII.	3 Republic
1796 June 9	.....		Louis XVIII.	31 Republic
1799 to 1804	.....		Consulate	5 Republic
1804 to 1814	.....		Napoleon	10
1814	.....		Louis XVIII. restored	
1820 January 29	George IV.	11	.....	
1824 Sept. 16	.....		Charles X.	6
1830 June 26	William IV.	7	.....	
—— August 9	.....		Louis Philip I.	
1837 June 20	Victoria I.		.....	

QUESTIONS

FOR THE

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When did EDWARD THE CONFESSOR succeed to the kingdom?—When did he die; and by whom was he succeeded?

By whom was England invaded in the reign of HAROLD?

Who were the Normans?—From whom was WILLIAM duke of NORMANDY descended?

When did William of Normandy arrive in England; and what ensued?—What government now ended?

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By whom was England invaded soon after the accession of EDWARD III?—On what pretext did Edward invade France?—What were the principal events of the war with France?—What were the last military exploits of Edward III?—When did he die?—What was the extent of the influence of the parliament during this reign?

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